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THE CHILD'S

FIRST HISTORY OF ROME.

BY

E. M. SEWELL,

AUTHOR OF "AMY HERBERT," ETC. ETC.

NEW YORK:
D. APPLETON AND COMPANY,
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PREFACE

TO THE AMERICAN EDITION.

THE solicitude, so generally disclosed, to make every department of knowledge accessible to the young by means of works adapted to their intellectual capacity and progress, is one of the most remarkable characteristics of the present age. The men are now living, who can recollect the period when instruction in our best schools, limited to two or three indispensable studies, was conveyed through the medium of text-books which were scarcely intelligible even to the teacher; much less to the pupil committed to his care: when works of general information, fitted to instruct as well as amuse the juvenile mind, written for its use and adjusted to its powers, would have been sought for in vain: when, in fact, the best reading of all who were short of the age of puberty, comprised little except absurd and incredible tales of enchantment and magic.

Now, what a change! Not only has the principle of adaptation to the intellectual development of the young been recognised, and, with nearly mathematical precision, applied in our schools, but numerous additional studies, acknowledged to be important, have been successfully introduced, and the means of pursuing them amply provided; and, instead of the wretched compilations from an age of barbarism and superstition, in which the young formerly found their entertainment at the fireside, we have teeming libraries, rich in the various treasures of science, of literature, and of art: including works in every branch of knowledge, written expressly for them, and, in the main, admirably fitted, at the same time, to gratify and excite thirst for information in their tender minds.

The best things, however, are liable to abuse; the noblest ideas are ever in most danger of being pushed to extremes; and the prevailing anxiety, daily augmenting, to secure suitable and sufficient intellectual food for the young, has been productive of some consequences, which cannot be contemplated by the judicious with unmixed pleasure: hardly without regret.

One of these may be observed in numerous attempts made of late, to bring certain subjects of an abstract and profound nature within the circle of studies appropriate to the young; as if it were

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desirable, even if it were possible, to pursue such subjects during a period of life scarcely long enough to master those which are on a level with their powers, and practically more important to their success in life. Yet the advocates and patrons of the introduction of such studies are not few; nor have their exertions been wholly without success: with what unhappy results, time ultimately will show. In our opinion, this crowding and tasking the immature mind with the contents of encyclopedias, is scarcely less to be deplored, than the defective instruction of a former day.

Another consequence of the present temper of the public, is a flood of fictitious works designed for the perusal of the young. In these works, a series of imaginary facts is made a vehicle to convey moral and religious information. Such facts, of course, beyond their immediate use, possess no value; and it may be seriously questioned, whether the lessons they convey, wanting, as they do, the authority which real facts impart, possess more. Be this as it may, all must admit that these lessons make but a slight impression on the feelings and memory in comparison with the interest awakened by the incidents of the story and its progress to the catastrophe; while the distaste thus engendered for less exciting though infinitely more useful reading, is a positive injury for which they offer no equivalent or compensation whatever.

In the following work by the accomplished Miss Sewell, both of the extremes referred to, are shunned. Her subject is neither profound nor feigned. History is the narration of real events in the order and circumstances in which they occurred; and of all histories, that of Rome comprises a series of events more interesting and instructive, to youthful readers, than any other that has ever been written.

Of the manner in which Miss Sewell has executed the work, we can scarcely speak in terms of approbation too strong. Drawing her materials from the best, that is to say, the most reliable sources, she has incorporated them in a narrative at once unostentatious, perspicuous, and graphic: manifestly aiming throughout to be clearly understood by those for whom she wrote, and to impress deeply and permanently on their minds what she wrote; and in both of these aims, we think, she has been eminently successful.

On the whole, we are inclined to believe that the public generally will regard this work as a very desirable accession to our juvenile literature; and will heartily approve of its republication in the present cheap and convenient form.

NEW YORK, *July* 5, 1849.

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THE CHILD'S
FIRST HISTORY OF ROME.

CHAPTER I.

THE FOUNDATION OF ROME,

B. C. 753.

B. C. 1184 to 753.

1. If we desire to understand the history of any country, that is, what happened to the people who lived in it in years past, we must begin by learning where the country itself is, and what it is like.

2. The history of Rome is the history of a people who once dwelt in Italy, and, being extremely brave, fought against other nations and conquered them, and at last became the masters of a great part of the world. We shall find Italy in the map of Europe—Germany and Switzerland lie to the north of it; the Adriatic Sea bounds it on the east; and the Mediterranean on the south and west. Its shape is curious, something like a man's boot.

3. Italy is a very beautiful country; it is much warmer there than in England; the winds are softer, the sky is of a deeper blue, and many lovely flowers and shrubs bloom in the open air, which we are obliged to keep carefully in green-houses. A high range of mountains, called the Apennines, runs through it from north to south; and below these

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mountains there are smooth lakes and fertile valleys, amongst which grow corn and vines, orange groves and mulberry-trees, and all which can really be desired to support and make life pleasant. Italy has often been called the garden of the world.

4. It is natural for us to wish to know who first inhabited this beautiful country—who governed the people and made laws for them—but it is very difficult to find out the truth; and when we read the stories which are commonly told upon these subjects, we must remember that we cannot be as certain of them as we are of things which have happened in later years. All that we can really be sure of is, that in very ancient times Italy was divided into a great many little states, and that the inhabitants were continually fighting with each other. As to their religion they were heathens, and worshipped false gods; but they were very particular in keeping up all their religious customs and ceremonies, much more so indeed than many persons in these days who say they believe in the True God.

5. One of the principal of these Italian States was called Latium, and its chief city was Alba Longa, or the long white city. Alba is said to have been built by the son of Æneas, a famous prince, who settled in Italy after escaping from Troy, a city in Asia Minor, which was taken by the Greeks about the year B. C. 1184. There were many kings of Alba whom we know nothing about; but we are told at last of two brothers, Numitor and Amulius, who both wished to have the crown. Numitor was the rightful king; but Amulius was the braver and richer, and by giving the people money, he persuaded them to help him in taking possession of his brother's throne, and compelling him to live like a common person. Amulius could not have been happy after doing such a wicked thing; he began to fear lest, some day

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or other, the children of Numitor might try to take his crown as he had taken their father's; and in order to be safe he killed Numitor's sons, and obliged his daughter, who was called Rhea Silvia, to be a vestal virgin. Vestal virgins were women whose duty it was to attend to the religious services in the temple of Vesta, one of the heathen goddesses. One of their chief duties was to take care that a particular fire, which was considered sacred, should never be allowed to go out. There was a very strict law against their marrying and having children, and Amulius supposed, therefore, that if he made Rhea Silvia a vestal virgin, there would be no fear of any one after her trying to do him harm.

6. In spite, however, of this strict law, Rhea Silvia had two little sons—they were twins, born at the same time. Amulius was exceedingly angry when he heard it, and made up his mind directly that the poor children should be killed. There was a deep river, the Tiber, which flowed by his city, and he ordered them to be thrown into it. Perhaps he thought that when the dark waters had hidden them from sight they would be forgotten, and no one would ask who murdered them. The servants of Amulius did as they were told; they put the two little infants into a basket and took them to the river, and there they laid them down in the cold stream and left them alone to die. Just at that time the waters of the Tiber had overflowed its banks, and covered part of the land near. The basket was carried down the river till it reached a part where the water was not very deep, and then it rested upon the ground; and so the poor children were saved from drowning.

7. There was no one, however, to feed them, or take care of them, and they must still have died if they had remained there. But it happened (or, if

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the story be really true, we must say it was ordered by God) that Faustulus, a shepherd, found the two little babies and had pity upon them, and carried them home to his wife, and told her that she must nurse them and bring them up with his own children, and he gave them the names of Romulus and Remus.

8. All this time Amulius supposed they were dead, and that he was quite safe; but God, who punishes wicked heathens as well as Christians, did not allow him to escape. A great many years however went by; Amulius was still king of Alba, and his brother Numitor lived near him, without having riches or power, and very unhappy, no doubt for the loss of his children; and Romulus and Remus grew up to be young men, and were thought to be the sons of the shepherd Faustulus. They used to spend a great part of their time in feeding cattle upon the hills and in fighting against robbers, and this made them very brave and hardy. Numitor also had some flocks and herds which fed on the mountains, and one day there was a quarrel between his herdsmen and Romulus and Remus. Remus was taken prisoner, and the shepherd carried him off to Numitor, imagining that he would be very angry with him. But Numitor liked what he saw of Remus extremely; he thought him a fine, noble young man, and asked several questions as to who he was, and where he came from; and at last he began to suspect that perhaps he might be one of the little twins who were supposed to have been drowned in the river Tiber. Of course he was quite certain of it when he heard all about him from Faustulus; and soon it was known by every one that Romulus and Remus were the grandsons of Numitor.

9. Then the two young princes determined not to let Amulius be king any longer, and they brought

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together all their friends and companions, and attacked the city. Amulius did his best to save himself, but he could not succeed, for Romulus came to his palace, and forced his way through the guards, and at length found his uncle and killed him. Numitor was then proclaimed king again.

10. Romulus and Remus were not contented to live quietly at Alba after this; they had a great wish to build a city for themselves. Their grandfather allowed them to follow their own will, and they left Alba and set out with some followers to find a place which would suit them. A spot was discovered amongst some hills, not very far from Alba, which they thought would do; but when they had fixed upon it, they could not agree as to which of them should begin the work. So they determined to settle the question by consulting an augur. Augurs were persons who pretended to decide what ought to be done by observing such things as the flight of birds, or by examining the appearance of the entrails of beasts after they were sacrificed. The heathens supposed that their gods declared their will by such signs. Some appearances were thought to be good auguries, others bad ones. The augurs in Italy had a great deal of respect paid to them, so that it was natural for Romulus and Remus to go to them when they could not settle a question for themselves.

11. A particular day was named for consulting the augur, and Romulus and Remus stood upon different hills to watch for what would appear to them. It is said that Remus saw six vultures first, and Romulus twelve afterwards. The augurs declared that Romulus had the best omen, and that he was to begin building the city; and so he did, and called it Rome. He marked out the size by yoking a bull and a cow to a plough, which, as it went along, made furrows where the walls were to be built; but the plough was lifted up

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wherever the gates were to be, because every spot which it had passed over was considered sacred, and was never to be trodden on again. This was 753 years before the birth of our Saviour.

12. Remus was greatly disappointed at having lost the honor of beginning the city, and he gave way to his envious feelings by laughing at his brother, and leaping over the low walls and ditches which were just begun, and asking if such things as those would be any defence. This made a friend of Romulus exceedingly angry, and he struck Remus, who fell to the ground. The young prince died on the same spot, and they carried him to the banks of the Tiber and buried him.

CHAPTER II.

ROMULUS,

FIRST KING OF ROME, B. C. 753

B. C. 753 to 716.

1. ROMULUS was now left to be king alone; but his kingdom was a very poor, small one. It was only a collection of huts, with a little ground about it; and the walls of his palace, we are told, were made of rushes, and covered with thatch. He had besides very few subjects, and he therefore invited all people from the neighboring states who were discontented or unhappy, or who had done wicked things and were afraid of being punished, to come and live in his new city.

2. A good many men came, but there were scarcely any women; so that when they wanted wives they could not get them. At last Romulus thought of a plan by which he might bring some women to Rome. He ordered a great festival to be kept, with games

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and rejoicings, and asked a tribe of people called Sabines, who were settled near Rome, to come to it with their families. This they agreed to do, and when the time arrived they all appeared and the games began. Then a number of young Romans rushed in amongst the Sabines, and caught all the women who were unmarried, and carried them away in triumph to be their wives.

3. The Sabines were naturally enough exceedingly angry, and as the Romans would not give their daughters back to them, they determined to declare war against them.

4. Both the Romans and the Sabines were very brave, and the war went on for a long time without either of them being conquerors. The Sabines, however, took possession of the citadel or strong fortress of the Romans by the help of the governor's daughter. This woman's name was Tarpeia. She had seen the golden bracelets and rings which it was the custom of the Sabines to wear, and she wished very much to have some of them for her own. She therefore contrived to tell the Sabines that if they would give her what they wore on their left arms she would let them into the citadel. The Sabines very willingly agreed to this; the time was fixed, and all the arrangements were made. Tarpeia kept her promise, and managed to unfasten the gates, and the Sabines came in; but as they passed her they threw their bucklers, which were carried on their left arms, upon her, and crushed her to death; and thus her treachery and covetousness were punished. Part of the hill upon which this fortress stood is still called the Tarpeian rock, and it used to be a custom in Rome to throw persons headlong from it who were sentenced to die for having committed any great crimes.

5. The war was not at an end even when the Sabines had taken this fortress. It went on much

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longer; and at last there was a very great battle, and no doubt a number of persons would have been killed, if the Sabine women, who had been carried away and married to the Romans, had not determined to try and prevent any more fighting.

6. We can easily understand why they should have wished to make peace, for whichever side conquered they were sure to be unhappy. The Sabines were their fathers and brothers, but the Romans were their husbands; and though they had been taken away by force at first, by this time they had grown quite fond of them. The women all marched out of the city with their children in their arms; and when they came to the place where the battle was going on, they rushed into the middle of it amongst the soldiers, and begged them to be friends. Tatius, the king of the Sabines, listened to them; and he and Romulus consulted as to what could be done to stop the war. At last it was proposed that the Romans and the Sabines should become one people; that Tatius and Romulus should reign over them together, and that when they were dead, a Roman and a Sabine should be chosen in turn. This was accordingly settled; and the two kings took an oath that they would always keep peace with each other for the future.

7. There was a famous temple built at this time to Janus, the god of peace. The gates were kept open during war, and shut in the time of peace. We learn from the Roman writers that it was only shut twice during seven hundred years, which is a proof how constantly the Romans were at war. Tatius and Romulus did not reign very long together. Tatius was murdered after a few years. He refused to punish some of his friends who had done wrong, and the persons who were injured killed him in revenge. No one was chosen to succeed him, so that Romulus was now king over both the Romans and the Sabines.

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He seems to have been careful to govern well, for he chose some of his oldest and best subjects to help him with their advice. They were called senators. At first there were two hundred—one hundred for the Romans, and the other for the Sabines; but another hundred was added afterwards—so there were in all three hundred.

8. The Senators used to meet in the Forum or market-place, which was a large open space, with covered ways or porticoes round it.

9. After a while Romulus had other subjects besides the Sabines, and those who first joined him; for some of the little towns and states near were conquered by degrees, and the inhabitants left their cities and settled at Rome, and were called Plebeians. The others were called Patricians.

10. The patricians looked down upon the plebeians, and would not give them the same advantages as they had themselves; and in after years many of the troubles which happened at Rome were caused by the quarrels between the patricians and plebeians.

11. There were also in Rome persons called Clients. They were not of high rank, and it is not quite known where they first came from; but they were something like servants or tenants to the patricians: that is, the chief of the family was obliged to protect his client, and take care that he was not treated unjustly; and the client was obliged to support his chief or patron on many occasions. The Roman patricians were very proud of having a great many clients. The lowest rank of all were slaves.

12. We have not any clear account of the laws which Romulus made. He is said to have reigned thirty-seven years, but how and where he died is not certain.

13. This is the story which is told us:—Romulus summoned a great meeting of the people in a place

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called the field of Mars. A fierce storm arose, the sky became quite dark, and the multitude, being frightened, fled away to their homes. When the storm was over, Romulus could not be found. The people said that he was taken to heaven, and they worshipped him as a god.

14. That, of course, was a heathen notion. Romulus must have died as other men die. Some have said that the senators murdered him.

15. It may be useful to remember, that when Rome was founded the prophet Isaiah was living, for by placing together the facts of sacred and common history we sometimes gain a clearer idea of both.

CHAPTER III.

NUMA POMPILIUS,

SECOND KING OF ROME, B. C. 715.

B. C. 715 to 673.

1. Some time passed after Romulus was dead before it was settled who should succeed him. In the mean time the senators governed. The Romans at last fixed upon the Sabine, Numa Pompilius, who was a very good man—wise, gentle, just, and extremely particular about every thing which had to do with religion.

2. The Romans respected him very much, and supposed he was taught by a beautiful goddess whom they called Egeria. It was Numa's custom often to go by himself to a grotto near Rome, and there they fancied that Egeria appeared to him, and told him what laws to make. This notion we know was absurd and untrue, but certainly Numa did many things which may be a good example to all persons, Christians as well as heathens. He was

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very strict in making the Romans keep their word; and he was as kind to the poor as he was to the rich; and instead of allowing the Romans to quarrel with their neighbors, and go to war with them, he kept them at peace during the whole of his reign, so that the temple of Janus was never once opened.

3. He reigned a long while—forty years and more, it is said; and it must have been a sorrowful day for Rome when good King Numa died.

CHAPTER IV.

TULLUS HOSTILIUS,

THIRD KING OF ROME, B. C. 673.

B. C. 673 to 642. 1. The next king who reigned in Rome was Tullus Hostilius. He was a Roman chosen by the Sabines. He was not a religious man like Numa, though he is said to have taken care of the poor. We do not know much about him, but he is supposed to have reigned thirty-two years.

2. The principal event that happened in his time was the destruction of Alba Longa. Rome and Alba were very near each other, and the people quarrelled, and then their kings went to war. But instead of fighting a great battle, they determined to settle their disputes in the following manner. It happened that the Albans had three brothers in their army who were very brave, handsome, and noble; they were called Curiatii. In the Roman army there were also three brothers called Horatii. The Horatii and the Curiatii were cousins and friends, for the sister of one of the Horatii was engaged to be married to one of the Curiatii, and because she loved him

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very much, she had worked a beautiful robe for him which he used to wear. Yet, though they were cousins, it was proposed that they should fight together. The Horatii were to fight for the Romans, and the Curiatii for the Albans, and whichever of the two sets of brothers conquered, their side was to be considered to have gained the victory, just as if the two armies had really fought a battle.

3. The young men did not mind being chosen in this way; indeed they thought it a great honor. They went out to meet each other like friends, and promised that they would fight quite fairly, and then they began.

4. Two of the Horatii were soon killed: the other knew that he could not defend himself much longer, so he pretended to run away. The Curiatii followed him; but because they were wounded, they could not go very fast, and were not able to keep together; and when Horatius saw that they were separated, he turned back, and attacked them one by one; and at last the three brave Curiatii were all killed.

5. Horatius was very much delighted, and set off directly for Rome, where he knew he should have great honors paid him. Before he went he took off the robe which his sister had worked for her cousin, and put it upon his own shoulders. As he came to the city his sister met him, and upon perceiving what he wore, she grew exceedingly angry, and began to reproach him, calling him a murderer. Horatius could not bear this, and he lifted up his sword and killed her on the spot.

6. Horatius was ordered to be punished for his crime, but he was not condemned to death, because he had just done such great service to his country in fighting for it: he was, therefore, made to pass under the yoke. This means that two spears having been planted in the ground, and another laid across the

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ep of them, Horatius was made to pass under them as a sign of his being humbled and degraded.

7. There was peace between the Albans and Romans for a little time after this; but the Albans only pretended to be friendly, and when the Romans found this out, they took the first opportunity of marching against Alba, and quite destroyed it. The walls were completely pulled down and never built up again.

8. King Tullus grew sorry after a time that he had not been as careful about religion as Numa was. Some say that he had a painful disease which made him think of these things. The people must have had a very bad opinion of him, for when his palace caught fire, and he himself was burnt with it, they declared that he was killed because the gods were angry with him. We are not told where he was buried, and it is supposed that no honors were paid him at his death.

9. This was a great mark of disrespect amongst all nations; as we read in the Bible, of Jehoiakim the wicked king of Judah, who lived about 30 years after Tullus, that none were to lament for him, and that he was not to be buried like other men.

CHAPTER V.

ANCUS MARTIUS,

FOURTH KING OF ROME, B. C. 642.

B. C. 642 to 617. 1. ANCUS MARTIUS was the next king. He is said to have been the grandson of Numa, and in some respects he was like him, for he showed great regard to religion.

2. There were, however, some wars in his reign,

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and as the Romans were generally conquerors, their dominions increased in consequence. The city also became larger, and there were a great many more people living in it; but this brought trouble to Ancus, for there were so many crimes committed, that he was obliged to build a prison, in which all the wicked persons were kept. A dark and dreadful place it was, as may be seen by the remains of it at Rome at this day.

3. It happened during the reign of Ancus that a rich stranger, called Lucius Tarquinius Priscus, came to settle at Rome, with his wife Tanaquil. Tanaquil was a very ambitious woman, and wished above all things to see her husband a great man. There was not much hope of his being so in the town where he had been living, and for this reason she persuaded him to leave it, which accordingly he did, and set out on his journey in a chariot with his wife and attendants. Just as they arrived at one of the hills on which Rome was built, they looked up and saw an eagle hovering over their heads. Presently it descended, took off the cap which Lucius wore, and went up with it into the air. Then coming down again, the bird placed the cap on the head of Lucius a second time, and flew off.

4. Tanaquil pretended to have great skill in augury, and to be able to foretell what was going to happen. She thought the appearance of this eagle was a good sign, and declared to her husband that the gods had sent to let him know that he should one day be king of Rome. Both Lucius and Tanaquil were very well received at Rome. They were much liked because they were rich and agreeable, and King Ancus himself was pleased with Lucius Tarquinius, and by degrees became his great friend, and consulted him whenever any important question was to be decided.

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5. It seemed, therefore, very likely that Tanaquil's prophecy might some day be fulfilled.

6. Ancus reigned twenty-four years, and when he died he gave his two sons in charge to Lucius Tarquinius.

CHAPTER VI.

LUCIUS TARQUINIUS PRISCUS,

FIFTH KING OF ROME, B. C. 617.

B. C. 617 to 579. 1. TANAQUIL had her wish when King Ancus was dead, for the Romans chose Lucius Tarquinius Priscus to succeed him. Their choice was upon the whole a good one, for Lucius proved himself in many ways the greatest prince who had yet reigned over them. He was very warlike, and increased the Roman dominions; and he also took great pains to make the city not only beautiful but more healthy, by drawing the water from the swampy ground which lay near it. The largest of these drains is to be seen now at Rome, and is called the Cloaca Maxima. It is so high and so broad that a cart loaded with hay can pass through it; and though it has stood such an immense number of years there is not a stone out of its place.

2. Besides these great works, Lucius Tarquinius amused the people by public games and chariot races. He built an immense open theatre or circus, in which the people used to sit to watch the races. This circus was made so much larger afterwards, that two hundred and fifty thousand persons could be seated in it.

3. The Romans were always excessively fond of games and shows.

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4. But though Lucius Tarquinius was much liked, he was not able to have his own will in every thing. There is a strange story told about this, which we know however cannot be all true. He wished, it is said, to increase the number of his cavalry or horsemen, thinking they would help him in his wars. The Romans were extremely strict in keeping to all their old customs, which they thought had been settled by the gods; and as the number of horsemen was fixed, they did not like the idea of a change. One of the augurs indeed warned the king that he had no right to make any alteration without the permission of the gods. But Lucius Tarquinius only scoffed at him for pretending to know any thing about the will of the gods; and in order to prove if the augur really had more knowledge than other persons, he asked him whether, what he was then thinking of, was possible to be done or not. "Yes," replied the augur, "what you are thinking of may be done." The king smiled scornfully, and drew a razor from beneath his robe; then taking a flint in his hand, he said: "I was thinking whether it was possible for thee to cut this flint with this razor." The augur took the flint instantly, and without the least difficulty cut it completely through; and from that moment the king gave up the wish of doing any thing which was declared by the augurs to be against the will of the gods. There is another wonderful story told of an event that took place about this time. The king, in one of his battles, took prisoner a woman, whom he carried home to wait upon his wife. Tanaquil set her free, and allowed her son Servius Tullius to be brought up in the palace. One night, as this child was sleeping in his cradle, a bright flame was seen to flicker about his head. The persons who perceived it were very much frightened; but when they sent for Tanaquil, she declared that the sign

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was a good one, and meant that the boy would one day become a great and good man. From that moment Tanaquil determined to educate him as her own child, and when he grew up to be a man, Lucius Tarquinius gave him one of his daughters for a wife.

5. The sons of Ancus Martius were very jealous of the favor shown to young Servius, and especially of his being made the king's son-in-law; for they considered themselves the rightful heirs to the throne, and hoped to succeed to it after the death of Lucius Tarquinius. After a great deal of plotting they determined to murder the king, and if possible to seize upon the throne before it could be given to Servius. Accordingly they hired two young men, who dressed themselves up like peasants, and began a pretended quarrel. The officers of the court took them before the king, and made them tell their story, and whilst he was listening to them very intently, some of their companions, who were in the plot, came near and struck Lucius Tarquinius with a hatchet, and killed him.

6. The sad news was soon told to Tanaquil. She immediately sent for Servius, and begged him to govern in the king's name. This he consented to do, and Tanaquil then informed the people that their king was recovering, but that he wished Servius Tullius to be their ruler until he was quite restored. So Servius governed in the king's name for a few days, and when Tanaquil thought that the people were accustomed to obey him, she told them the truth, and Servius became their real monarch.

7. Lucius Tarquinius Priscus reigned thirty-eight years.

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CHAPTER VII.

SERVIUS TULLIUS,

SIXTH KING OF ROME, B. C. 579.

B. C. 579 to 535

1. SERVIUS TULLIUS was a good and wise king; but the patricians, who were the chief people in Rome, did not at all like him to reign over them. All the kings before him had been patricians like themselves; but Servius was born whilst his mother was in slavery, and the proud Romans thought it beneath them to obey him. Besides this, Servius showed great favor to the plebeians, who were generally treated very cruelly by the patricians. He took pity especially upon all debtors who were plebeians, and bade them send him a list of their debts, which he helped them to pay. If this had not been done, the patricians might have taken all their goods from them and made them slaves.

2. Servius also made a change in the mode of raising taxes, which helped the poor, and prevented their being called upon to pay as much as they paid before; and he allowed the plebeians to have some land to cultivate for themselves, which formerly had been given only to the patricians. In every case, indeed, he seems to have wished to do what was just and right.

3. All these things, however, only made the patricians hate Servius more and more; but perhaps they might not have been able to do him harm, if his own children and relations had not joined with them in rebelling against him.

4. He had two daughters who were married to the two sons of Lucius Tarquinius Priscus. The younger of these daughters was named Tullia. She

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was an extremely wicked woman, and as she did not like her own husband, Aruns, who was gentle and amiable, she determined to poison him and her sister, and then to marry her sister's husband, Tarquinius Superbus, who, like herself, was cruel and ambitious.

5. This dreadful deed she committed, but still she was not satisfied. Her wish was that her husband should be king. She therefore tried to persuade him that Servius was taking his place, and that if he was dead, there would be no doubt of his being made king himself. Tarquinius must have been nearly as wicked as his wife, for he listened to all she said, and tried in secret to stir up the patricians still more against the good old king.

6. At last, one day when the patricians were particularly angry with Servius, for endeavoring to make a law which they did not like, Tarquin entered the senate like a king, sat down on the throne, and began to abuse Servius openly. Some of the senators took the king's part, but a great many were frightened, and a terrible confusion followed. Servius soon heard that there was a tumult in the senate, and went in haste to know what was going on. When he arrived he saw Tarquin, his son-in-law, seated upon his throne. The sight made him excessively angry, and without considering that Tarquin was a young man, and therefore much the stronger of the two, he tried to pull him from the throne. The wicked prince seized the old king, and dragged him to the top of some high steps, and then threw him down headlong.

7. Some of his attendants lifted him up, intending to carry him to his palace; but Tarquin sent a party of his followers after him, who attacked him again, and killed him. His body was left on the ground, covered with blood.

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8. Tullia knew well what her husband intended to do on this day. She had indeed first put it into his head to try and murder her father, and whilst Tarquin was at the senate, she grew so impatient to know whether his plans had succeeded, that she determined to go herself, and learn. Accordingly she ordered her chariot to be prepared, and drove to the Forum, and there saluted her husband as king. As she was returning home, something in the road prevented the horses from moving on. The dead body of her father lay on the ground before her. "Do you fear to drive over the dead?" exclaimed Tullia to the charioteer: "go on." The man went on, and the blood of the poor old king dyed the wheels of the chariot, and even stained the clothes of his inhuman daughter. Years afterwards that horrible action was still remembered by the Romans. They called the street in which it had been committed the "wicked street."

CHAPTER VIII.

TARQUINIUS SUPERBUS,

SEVENTH KING OF ROME, B. C. 535.

B. C. 535 to 510.

1. TARQUIN THE SECOND is said to have been named Superbus, or the Proud, because of an insolent and cruel speech which he made directly after he came to the throne. He was asked to allow the body of Servius to be buried like that of a prince, but he answered that Romulus had no funeral and therefore Servius required none. Certainly no one could have expected any thing good from a person who had committed a dreadful crime in order to gain the throne, and the Romans soon found that Tarquin was a com-

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plete tyrant. He treated both the patricians and the plebeians most severely; and the poor people were obliged to work so hard at the different buildings which he chose to have erected, that many of them killed themselves, whilst several of the rich and noble left Rome, and went to Gabii, a city a few miles from Rome, the inhabitants of which were enemies of Tarquin. One of Tarquin's chief buildings was a temple to the god Jupiter. It was placed upon a hill in the middle of the city, and as the workmen were digging the foundations of this temple they found a human head not at all decayed, which was thought to be a great prodigy, and a sign that the place would some day become the head of the world. From hence the temple and the hills were called the Capitol, because of the Latin word, *caput*, which means a head. Other buildings were afterwards placed there, but none so handsome as the temple of Jupiter, with its bronze gates and gilt ceilings. Nor was there any part of their city, which the people of Rome from that time looked upon with more reverence than the Capitol.

2. There were some strange books kept in this temple of Jupiter on the Capitoline hill. They were said to have been brought to Tarquin by a sibyl or prophetess, who offered to let him have nine books for three hundred pieces of gold. This seemed a large sum of money to give, and the king refused. The woman went away, but after some time she returned again, saying she had burnt three, but the king might have the remaining six for the same money. Tarquin would not listen to her, and she again left him. But a third time she came, with only three of the books, and still she asked for three hundred pieces of gold.

3. The king was persuaded then to examine them more, and he consulted his senate as to whether he

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should keep them. They were found to be prophecies about Rome, and were thought to be of great value; and the woman having received the money, soon after disappeared, though not till she had warned the Romans to keep the books very carefully. The three volumes were called the Sibylline books. Two persons were appointed to take care of them, and the Romans always consulted them in any time of difficulty, to find out from them, if possible, what was going to happen and what they ought to do.

4. But Tarquin did not occupy himself only in erecting beautiful buildings at Rome; he carried on several wars with the neighboring states, especially with the Volscians, and generally speaking he was victorious. The city which it gave him the most trouble to conquer was Gabii, for he laid siege to it but could not take it, and at last he formed a plan for getting possession of it by treachery.

5. His son Sextus went to Gabii, and told the people that he had been ill-treated by his father, and was come to them for protection. The Gabines received him kindly, and Sextus lived amongst them, and learned all their schemes, and was even allowed to head their troops: still he did not quite know how to betray the city into his father's hands. He therefore sent a messenger secretly to Rome to ask the king's advice. Tarquin was walking in his garden when the man arrived. He was afraid to trust him with an answer in words, so he walked on as if he was thinking what to reply. There were a great many poppies in the garden, and whenever he came near to a tall one he knocked off its head. After a time he turned to the messenger, and said, "I have no answer to give my son, but tell him how you have seen me employed." Sextus was quick at understanding; and when the man repeated to him what he had seen, he knew that his father meant him by degrees

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to have all the chief persons in Gabii killed who were enemies to Rome. This he managed to do in different ways, by accusing some of them falsely, and causing others to be murdered secretly; and then, when the bravest citizens were gone, the others consented to submit to the Romans.

6. All these stories about Tarquin prove what a wicked person he must have been. His conscience, no doubt, told him that he deserved punishment, for he was always foreboding evil to himself or his family. He was a great believer in dreams and omens, and at last became so frightened at having seen what he thought bad omens, that he determined to send to the oracle at Delphi to know what they meant.

7. Delphi was a city in Greece. There was a very famous temple in it dedicated to the god Apollo. The priestess of this temple was supposed to have the power of consulting the god, and when persons were in doubt upon any point of great importance, they used to send questions to the priestess and receive an answer. Two of Tarquin's sons went to consult the oracle, and they took with them a young man named Junius Brutus, who was their cousin. Brutus had suffered a great deal from Tarquin's cruelty. One of his near relations was killed by the king's order, in the early part of the reign, and Brutus himself only escaped by pretending to be a dull, stupid person, almost an idiot. He was really however very clever and superior, and hated Tarquin's tyranny, and was always hoping and watching for some opportunity to free his country. The young men delivered the king's question to the oracle at Delphi, and when the answer was given, prepared to return home. But before they set off, they had an earnest desire to ask one question for themselves: Who was to be king of Rome after the death of Tarquin? The answers of the oracle were seldom given

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very clearly; they could generally be understood two ways, but the reply which was made to this inquiry seemed very plain. "He who first kisses his mother shall be king," said the oracle. Of course Tarquin's sons had no doubt of the meaning; but Brutus had no mother living, yet he treasured up the answer in his memory; and, when he again landed in Italy, he fell down and kissed the earth, which was considered in those times the common mother of all men.

8. No doubt this visit to Delphi made Brutus think more than ever whether it might not be possible some day to free his country, and become a great man himself; but perhaps he might never have rebelled against Tarquin if it had not been for a circumstance which made not only Brutus but all the chief persons in Rome furiously angry with the king's family. This was the exceedingly cruel, insulting behavior of Sextus Tarquin, to a very beautiful, amiable lady named Lucretia, the wife of Collatinus, a Roman general.

9. The Romans used to think that it was much more noble to die than to live in disgrace; they did not know that self-murder is a great crime; and Lucretia was so distressed at the insulting conduct of Sextus that she resolved to kill herself. She sent a message to her husband and her father, who were both with Tarquin and his army, besieging a town called Ardea, begging them to come to her directly, and bring each a friend with him. Lucretius, her father, and Collatinus set off instantly for Collatia, the place where Lucretia lived, and took with them Junius Brutus and Valerius, a person more looked up to at that time than any one in Rome. On their arrival, Lucretia told them of the insult she had received, and made them swear solemnly that they would avenge her. Then taking a dagger, which she

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had hidden in her dress, she plunged it into her body, and died.

10. Brutus drew forth the dagger, and vowed that he would kill Sextus, and drive the family of the Tarquins from Rome. The next day he collected a number of his friends and marched to Rome. There he called the people together, and informed them of the ill-conduct of Sextus and the death of Lucretia. The story caused the greatest indignation. The Romans determined immediately to make peace with Ardea, and expel Tarquin from the throne, and the senate and people with one consent swore that there should never be another king in Rome.

11. Tarquin soon heard of the rebellion against him; but he had no power to stop it, for he had no friends to take his part. He escaped with two of his sons, and took refuge in a neighboring city; but Sextus fled to Gabii, where he was killed.

12. This was the end of the kings of Rome. Probably there were more kings than we have any account of, for the stories which are told of them are very confused.

CHAPTER IX.

THE REPUBLIC.

CONSULS FIRST CHOSEN, B. C. 510

B. C. 510. 1. When Tarquin and his family were sent away from Rome, Junius Brutus was left to be the chief ruler, but he could not call himself king, because of the vow which he had made, that there should be no more kings. He said he should wish to have some one to help him to govern, and the person chosen was Collatinus, the husband

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of Lucretia. The Romans had two chief rulers for a great many years after this. They were named Consuls. This kind of government, when there are no kings, but only magistrates chosen by the people, is called a Republic.

2. Tarquin did not rest contented when he lost his throne. He determined to try and regain it, and as a beginning he sent persons to Rome to claim the property which he said belonged to him. These ambassadors were allowed to lodge in the city. There they began to contrive plots for his return, and persuaded two of the sons of Brutus, and some nephews of Collatinus, to join with them. A slave overheard their plans as they were talking about them at a banquet, and he went and told the consuls. Brutus was a very stern, determined man, and he did not refuse to sit upon the judgment-seat to try his own children and pass sentence upon them. The young men were brought into the Forum, and the lictors, or officers of justice, stood as guards around them. These lictors carried each a bundle of rods, called fasces, with an axe in the middle, as a mark of their office. Brutus spoke to his sons as if they had been strangers in whom he had no interest. He bade them defend themselves if they had any excuse to give, but the unhappy young men had none. "Lictors," exclaimed Brutus, "do your duty." And the lictors seizing upon his two sons, scourged them first and then beheaded them. The Romans wondered at this dreadful action, but they felt that it was strictly just, and they praised Brutus and honored him for it.

3. Collatinus was not consul very long. It was thought that he was inclined to favor Tarquin, who was his relation, and he was therefore obliged to give up his office, and another patrician was made consul in his stead.

4. Tarquin now found that there was no hope of

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regaining his throne without help, and he therefore persuaded the people of Veii and another little state to assist him. He and his son Aruns took the command of an army and declared war against Rome. The Roman consuls marched out against them, and there was a terrible battle. Aruns saw Brutus in the distance appearing in great state with guards and attendants, as if he had been a king; and being exceedingly enraged at the sight, spurred his horse towards him, exclaiming, "There he is!—the enemy of my family!—the usurper of my father's throne!" Brutus was no less brave than Aruns; he rushed against him, and the two enemies met with such fury that both fell dead upon the ground, each pierced by the spear of the other. The battle lasted till evening, but neither party would allow that they were conquered.

5. There was great sorrow in Rome that night, for Brutus had been loved and honored by all men. They laid his body in the Forum, and the noble Valerius stood beside it and proclaimed to the people all the glorious actions he had performed. The Romen women mourned his loss for twelve months, and, in after years, his statue, with a drawn sword in his hand, was placed in the Capitol in the midst of the kings of Rome.

6. Valerius himself was the chief person in Rome, now that Brutus was dead. He was made consul, and was called Poplicola, or pleaser of the people. The people were at one time afraid that he intended to make himself king, because he began building a very beautiful house for himself on the top of a high hill; but when Valerius heard what they suspected, he appeared before the great meeting of the people, which was called "the Assembly of the Curiæ," in a very humble way, and assured them he did not intend to do any thing of the kind, and he afterwards

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showed that he was in earnest, by doing every thing he could to keep the government just as it was.

7. All this time Tarquin had not given up the idea of returning to be king. He went to Porsenna, who ruled over Clusium, one of the Italian states, and begged him to be his friend. Porsenna agreed, and raised an immense army, which he led himself against Rome. The Romans placed soldiers upon a hill near the city to defend it, but Porsenna drove them from it, and followed them to the banks of the river Tiber, which flowed between this hill and the city. There was a bridge across the river, which the Romans fled over as quickly as they could. But three very brave men determined to fight to the last. One of them was called Horatius Cocles. It was his duty to guard the bridge, and he knew that if he left it, Porsenna and his army would cross over it, and take possession of Rome. He stood with his two companions in front of the bridge, fighting, desperately, whilst the rest of the Roman soldiers crossed safely. Then Horatius called out to them to break it down, and so prevent Porsenna from following, and still he and his two comrades fought on, whilst the workmen knocked the bridge to pieces. The companions of Horatius escaped before it was quite destroyed. At length there was a great shout, and the last piece of the bridge fell crashing into the water.

8. Then Horatius himself plunged into the river. He is said to have prayed to the god of the river to protect him. Perhaps he did pray to the god, he did not know any better; but the True God guarded him, and we may believe forgave his ignorance, and was pleased with him for risking his own life to save his fellow-creatures.

9. Porsenna's soldiers cast a shower of darts against him, but he was saved from all dangers, and reached the opposite shore unhurt. His countrymen

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watched him with the greatest anxiety, and set up a loud shout of delight as he landed, and the senate and people afterwards caused a statue to be erected to his honor, and gave him a grant of land as a sign of their gratitude.

10. But though the Romans had escaped better than they expected in this instance, they were still in great peril, for Porsenna's troops surrounded the city, and they could get no food from the country, and all which they had with them was fast being consumed. They were very hard pressed by famine, but even then they did not forget their gratitude to Horatius Cocles, for they all provided him with as much food as they could spare. At last it was determined to try and kill Porsenna treacherously. Mutius, a young man of high birth, offered to disguise himself and go to Porsenna's camp for this purpose, and as he could speak the same language as Porsenna, he thought he should not be found out.

11. Mutius did not know Porsenna by sight, and when he reached the camp, he saw a person splendidly dressed arranging some business with his soldiers. This he thought must be the king. He went up to him directly and stabbed him. The next instant he was seized by the soldiers, and carried before their lord. "Hateful assassin!" exclaimed Porsenna, "who art thou?" "I am a Roman," replied Mutius: "my design was to deliver Rome from her greatest enemy." The words were spoken calmly without any sign of fear, and Porsenna was amazed. He had never seen such boldness before. He warned the young Roman that he would be punished for his treachery by being burned to death. Mutius thrust his right hand into a fire which burnt near him, and held it there unmoved. This last mark of courage softened the king's anger. He rose up,

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and in the presence of all, gave Mutius his forgiveness, and bade him return in peace. From this time Mutius was called Scævola, or left-handed. His right hand was useless.

12. Mutius was grateful to Porsenna, and before he left the camp told him that it would be well to make peace with Rome, as three hundred Romans had taken an oath to kill him, if Mutius himself did not do so. This, of course, alarmed Porsenna, and he began really to think of proposing peace. He wished the Romans to consent that Tarquin should return, but no one would hear of this, and he was forced to give up the point. He obliged them, however, to restore some lands which they had taken, and to give him hostages, that he might be certain of the agreement which was made being properly kept.

13. These hostages were persons of rank, both men and women. They were delivered up to Porsenna with the promise of being well treated, if the Romans did all they had promised to do; but if they broke their word the hostages were to be punished.

14. One of the hostages was a beautiful young girl named Clœlia, who was too proud to bear being a prisoner, and, therefore, swam across the Tiber and escaped. All the other ladies followed her example. They were sent back to Porsenna, who behaved as nobly to them as he had done to Mutius. He forgave Clœlia, and allowed her to go back to Rome with any of her companions whom she chose to take with her.

15. After this Porsenna departed from Rome with his army.

16. It is said that Tarquin fought once more against the Romans in a great battle at Lake Regillus in Tusculum. He was not the chief in command then, for the battle was between the Romans

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and several other states, and Tarquin only joined with them. Roman writers give wonderful accounts of this battle, and declare that two young men, like giants, were seen riding on white horses, and fighting for the Romans, and that before the battle was over they appeared at Rome and told the people that their side had gained the victory. The Romans were very ready to believe wonderful stories, particularly if they were for their own credit.

17. It is generally believed that Tarquin escaped alive from the battle of Regillus, and went to live at Cuma, with the prince of that place, who was his friend. He must have been about ninety years old when he died.

CHAPTER X.

THE INSURRECTION OF THE PLEBEIANS, BROKE OUT, B. C. 495.

B. C. 495. 1. The history of Rome, for some time after the war with Porsenna, is not so much about wars with other states as about the people themselves. The proud patricians tried more and more to gain power, and the plebeians tried to prevent them from doing so. Probably, if the patricians had been kind to the poor, they might have governed without much difficulty; but they were very selfish, and the plebeians grew worse off every year.

2. The great cause of the sufferings of the plebeians was that the laws concerning debt were extremely hard. Many of the plebeians were very poor, and were obliged to borrow money to enable them to live. If a poor man was not able to pay his debt, he was

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given over to his creditor as a slave, and was bound with chains and thrown into prison, or treated very cruelly in other ways.

3. When the Romans went to war, all the treasures which were taken were given to the patricians—the plebeians had none; yet still they were forced to fight, and were often taken out of a dungeon and sent to battle, and put in prison again when the war was over.

4. This made the plebeians so angry, that when there was a war with the Volscians, B. C. 495, they refused to fight at all. It was one particularly hard case which made them take this resolution. One day, a poor old man rushed into the Forum, looking exceedingly thin and ill, and with marks of stripes upon his back, and told the people a dreadful tale of all he had suffered. He said he had served in the wars often; but whilst he was away his farm was burnt, and he was, in consequence, forced to borrow money to pay his taxes; and then, because he could not repay it, he had been sold as a slave.

5. Just at that moment news was brought that the Volscians were coming near the city. The plebeians with one consent declared that nothing should persuade them to go out to battle; they would not fight for the rich who oppressed them. This was very alarming, especially to the consuls, who had the command of the armies. One of them, named Servilius, took the poor people's part, and promised them, that if they would only fight this time, they should be treated much better afterwards. The other consul was a severe man, and would do nothing for them. The people, however, believed what Servilius said. They went against the Volscians, and defeated them, but when they came back to Rome, the other consul seized upon all who were in debt, and put them in prison just the same as before.

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6. This naturally enough made the case worse than it was at first. Some of the rich patricians, indeed, tried to help the plebeians, but they could not succeed in having their laws altered; and the plebeians, being quite in despair, used to hold secret meetings and plot how to free themselves. At length they agreed together to leave Rome entirely. A leader was chosen, and they all went forth and stationed themselves upon a hill at some little distance from the city.

7. The senators and patricians saw now how wrongly and foolishly they had been acting, and they sent Menenius Agrippa with ten men to the plebeians to propose to make peace with them. Agrippa was very clever in persuading by talking, and he told the people a fable in order to convince them that they were doing as much harm to themselves by rebelling as they were to the patricians.

8. "Once upon a time," he said, "all the members of the body took it into their heads not to work for the stomach, because they declared it was idle and useless. So the hand would not bring food to the mouth, and the mouth would not receive any, and the teeth would not chew, and the stomach starved. But whilst the stomach was starving all the members were wasting away, and at last they discovered that by killing the stomach they were killing themselves."

9. The plebeians were much struck by the fable, and consented to go back to the city. But before they went it was agreed that all persons who had been made slaves for debts should be set free, and that from thenceforth the plebeians should have officers of their own to take charge of their affairs and protect them. These officers were to be chosen every year, and called Tribunes. There were two at first, but afterwards more were appointed. They were allowed to forbid or prevent any law which the

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senators were inclined to make that could injure the plebeians, and their persons were considered sacred; that is, it was made a very great crime to strike them or do them any bodily harm. When all these things were settled the plebeians returned to Rome, hoping that for the future they should have rest and comfort.

CHAPTER XI.

CAIUS MARCIUS CORIOLANUS, IN EXILE, B. C. 491.

B. C. 491. 1. THE next thing which we hear of the plebeians makes us feel that they were still in danger of being hardly treated. There was a great famine in Rome about the year 491 B. C., and of course the poor were those who felt it most. Gelo, king of Sicily, heard of their distress, we are told, and sent the Roman senators a quantity of corn to give to the people; but there was one senator who was not willing to help them, unless they would consent not to have tribunes to protect them any longer. This senator's name was Caius Marcius Coriolanus. He was a brave man, but extremely proud; and he thought the people were getting too much power, and that this was a good opportunity of putting a stop to it.

2. The tribunes were very angry when they heard what Coriolanus had proposed. They accused him of treason against his country; and Coriolanus, instead of waiting to be tried, left Rome, and set off for Antium, a city belonging to the Volscians. He arrived there late in the evening, and immediately went to the house of Attius Tullius, a powerful Volscian chief. There was one room in heathen houses

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which was considered as peculiarly belonging to the household gods, or lares, and all persons who entered it were safe. Coriolanus went directly to this room, and sat down,—and after a time Attius came to him. Coriolanus had been an enemy of the Volscians before; he had even fought against them; yet Attius did not for this reason revenge himself upon him, now that he was in distress, but received him most kindly. War was soon declared between the Volscians and Romans, and Coriolanus was made chief of the Volscian army, and led it towards Rome. The senators knew how brave he was, and how skilful as a general, and they were afraid, and sent ambassadors to him begging him to spare his country. But Coriolanus received the ambassadors proudly, and would not listen to them. The senators sent a second time, and still the ambassadors were treated with scorn. At length Veturia, the mother of Coriolanus, and Volumnia, his wife, determined to try if they could prevail. They took the children of Coriolanus with them, and set out for the camp of the Volscians, accompanied by several other Roman ladies. Coriolanus received them with a great deal of affection; but when he heard that they were come to beg for peace, he said that it would be impossible to grant it, for I was fighting now for the Volscians, and he must do what was best for them. "My son," exclaimed Veturia, "can you refuse my wish? If I cannot persuade you, I have resolved to die in your presence. You shall not march to Rome without treading on the dead body of your mother." Then bursting into tears, she threw herself at his feet. His wife and children did the same. Coriolanus could no longer refuse. He turned to Veturia, saying "Mother, thou hast saved Rome, but lost thy son."

3. Veturia went back to Rome, happy at having

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done such service to her country; but she never saw her son again. Coriolanus returned with the army of the Volscians to their own state, and there remained till his death. Some persons say that he lived to be an old man; some declare that he was soon after killed by the Volscians; and others have thought that he died of grief, for having been persuaded to do what he felt was unfair to the people whose army he commanded.

CHAPTER XII.

CINCINNATUS,

DICTATOR, B. C. 458.

B. C. 458. 1. The Romans appear scarcely ever to have had peace, either at home or abroad. As soon as one dispute between the patricians and plebeians was ended another began. They were always quarrelling now about the power of the tribunes, which the patricians said was much greater than it ought to be; and the only time when they seemed inclined to agree was when they were at war with some other state. Then they were obliged to be friends and fight for their country, or their enemies would have ruined them both.

2. About the year 458 B. C., one of these wars broke out, which is particularly to be remembered on account of a famous general called Cincinnatus, or the curly-haired, who is said to have distinguished himself very much in it.

3. The war was carried on against the Æqui, the inhabitants of one of the small Italian states. The consul Minucius, who commanded the Roman army, unfortunately led his soldiers to a place where they

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were in great danger, for the Æqui surrounded them on all sides, and no one was near to help them. Some horsemen, however, contrived to gallop back to Rome without being taken, and told the senate of the peril the army was in, and entreated that assistance might be granted them directly. The senate were in great alarm, for both the consuls were absent, and the only person they could think of to give them advice, or command the soldiers whom they might be able to send, was Quinctius Cincinnatus.

4. About two years before, Cincinnatus had left Rome, indignant at a punishment which was inflicted upon his son, Cæso, a proud, insolent young man, who was constantly ill-treating the plebeians, and had even insulted one of the tribunes. Cæso did not deserve much affection from his father, but Cincinnatus could not help feeling for him, because he was his son; and when the young man was obliged to go into exile, Cincinnatus left Rome himself, and went to live at a little farm on the banks of the Tiber, at a distance from all his former friends. Cæso did not live long after his punishment; he wickedly joined a large army of exiles and runaway slaves, and tried to take possession of the capitol; but they were all either killed or forced to retire; and Cæso, it is supposed, was amongst the number of the slain.

5. Cincinnatus appeared once more at Rome after the death of his son, upon being chosen consul; but when his office was over, he returned again to his farm. The wisdom he had shown at that time, and on other occasions, made the senate consider him as the only person able to aid Minucius and his army, in their great difficulty.

6. The messengers who were sent to Cincinnatus found him, as we are told in the old Roman legends, engaged in managing his farm. They informed him of the danger in which the army was placed, and

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said that it was the wish of the senate to make him dictator. Now the office of a dictator was higher in rank than even that of a consul. The Romans only appointed one in case of some pressing danger or difficulty. His power was so great, that every thing and everybody were under his control; but his office only lasted a short time, not more than six months.

7. Cincinnatus received the message of the senate without showing any pleasure at the honor paid him. No grandeur could make up to him for the loss of the peaceful, happy life, which he led at his little farm; but he could not refuse to help his country at such a time, and after taking leave of his wife and his quiet home, with sighs and deep regret, he departed.

8. As he drew near the city the senate sent a boat to meet him and conduct him across the Tiber. Three of his sons, his friends, and the chief persons in Rome, waited to receive him as he landed, and all expressed the greatest delight at seeing him.

9. The first thing which Cincinnatus did was to command every man to enlist who was able to bear arms, and in three days he had collected a large army, with which he marched to the help of the consul Minucius.

10. They arrived at Mount Algidus, where the consul's army was stationed, about midnight. Cincinnatus placed his soldiers in a circle round the camp of the Æqui, and contrived to let Minucius know that he was come, and then he burst forth upon his enemies. All that night the battle went on; and when the day began to dawn the Æqui saw that they themselves were in a worse condition than the Romans had been. Their enemies were on all sides of them, and it was impossible to escape. A message was instantly sent to Cincinnatus, begging him to spare them. The dictator ordered the chiefs

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of the army to be put in chains; the rest were made to pass under the yoke—the usual sign of being conquered.

11. Cincinnatus then returned to Rome, and was received with triumph. A golden crown was given him as a reward, but he was not tempted by any honors to remain at Rome; and after he had been dictator sixteen days, he gave up his office and went back to his farm.

CHAPTER XIII.

THE DECEMVIRI,

BEGAN THEIR TASK, B. C. 451.

B. C. 451. 1. We next come to the government of the Decemviri. Amongst the many complaints which the plebeians were so often making, one of the chief was that they wanted fair laws. As it was, the consuls might treat them very much as they pleased, since there were no just and fixed laws for them to go by.

2. For a long time the plebeians had murmured about this, and tried to prevail on the patricians to do something for them, but nothing was arranged until a few years after the dictatorship of Cincinnatus, when the patricians consented that three senators should be sent to Greece to inquire by what laws the people of that country, and especially the Athenians, were governed, so that they might learn how to improve the Roman laws, which were then to be written down as fixed rules; and when these senators came back, ten patricians, called, from their number, decemviri, were appointed to examine the old Roman laws, and make such changes as they should think necessary. They began their work in

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the month of May, in the year B. C. 451, and finished it by the next year. As soon as it was ready, they presented it to the people, that every one might have an opportunity of judging whether the laws which were proposed were just and fair. If any person had an objection to make, or an improvement to recommend, he was invited to do so; and when, at last, the whole were approved, they were engraved upon two tables of brass, and hung up in the most public place in the forum.

3. The decemviri had great power allowed them whilst they were thus employed in arranging the laws. There were no consuls, no tribunes,—they had the management of every thing; but it was supposed that when their task was finished they would give up their office. However they did not seem inclined to do this. On some pretence or other, they still kept the government in their own hands; and at last both the patricians and plebeians grew alarmed, for they found that the decemviri were becoming their tyrants.

4. About this time a war broke out with two of the neighboring states. Two large armies were raised by the Romans, but they were both defeated; and the general ill-feeling against the government was excited to a great degree by an instance of shocking injustice and cruelty shown by one of the decemviri to a brave old soldier, Siccius Dentatus. Dentatus did not at all like the decemviri, and had complained of them very much. This the decemvir who commanded the army knew, and in order to rid himself of such an enemy, he sent him with some other soldiers to try and find out a good place for a camp. When they came to a lonely part of the country, the soldiers, according to an order which had been given them, fell upon Dentatus and murdered him. They left his body, and it was found afterwards, and

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every one guessed the crime which had been committed.

5. Appius Claudius, another of the decemviri, about the same time behaved as wickedly at Rome as his fellow-ruler did in the camp. He was in the habit of passing through the forum every day to his judgment-seat, and on these occasions, often saw a beautiful young lady, named Virginia, whom he fell very much in love with. Virginia, however, was engaged to be married to Icilius, who had once been a tribune. She would not see Appius or listen to any thing he had to say, and at last he determined to carry her off against her will. In order to do this he practised a most wicked deceit.

6. He ordered one of his clients, named Marcus Claudius, to seize Virginia, and declare that she was his slave, and bring her before himself that it might be judged whether she was so or not. He meant then to allow Marcus to take her away, and afterwards she was to be brought to his house; and no one, he knew, would be able to interfere.

7. This cruel order was obeyed, and on the very first opportunity Marcus brought poor Virginia before Appius, and protested that she was his slave. Virginius, her father, came with her. He was a soldier of the rank called a centurion, and had been sent for from the camp, at the desire of Virginia's friends, when they found what a falsehood Marcus was telling. When the trial began, Marcus was called upon to prove that what he said was true, but he could bring no real proof; though he declared that Virginia was the child of one of his slaves, and that she had been given to the wife of Virginius when she was a little infant. After hearing what was to be said on both sides, Appius determined to put an end to the trial; and decided, as he always intended to do, in favor of Marcus. The distress

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and anger of Virginius exceeded all that can be imagined,—for he well knew why it was that Appius had given such an unjust judgment. He endeavored, however, to appear calm, and only requested that he might be allowed to speak for a few moments with his daughter alone, before she was taken from him forever. The permission was given, and Virginius drew his daughter aside. A knife was lying upon a butcher's stall near. The unhappy father seized it, and plunged it into the heart of his child, exclaiming, "Thus only can I preserve thy liberty and honor."

8. Virginius rushed back to the camp with the bloody knife in his hand, and told to the whole army the wicked intentions of Appius. The soldiers rose up like one man, and declared they would no longer be ruled by such tyrants. They marched towards Rome, and when the senators sent to know what it was they wished for, they required that the decemviri should be given into their hands to be burnt to death.

9. This, however, was refused, for it was considered too cruel; but all their power was taken away, and Appius himself was thrown into a dreadful dungeon, where he very soon died.

10. After this the Romans returned to their old form of government by consuls and tribunes.

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CHAPTER XIV.

THE SIEGE OF VEII,

COMMENCED B. C. 405.

B. C. 405. 1. THE next very important event in the history of Rome is the siege of Veii. The Romans, as we have seen, were perpetually at war, and generally successful. Their dominions, therefore, increased quickly. They did not usually destroy the towns which they took, but allowed the people still to be governed by their own princes, as long as they themselves were looked up to as their chief; and, one by one, all the little states in Italy became subject to them.

2. The war with Veii, however, was carried on a long time before the Romans were conquerors. Veii itself was a very strong town, built upon a hill, and the Romans fought a great many battles in the country round, before they thought of besieging the city. At length, in the year B. C. 405, they decided that it would be better to try and take it at once, and so make themselves masters of the whole state. Accordingly they went close up to the city, and surrounded it, and tried very hard to get possession of it; but the walls were too strong, and the people too brave; and after fighting month after month, the winter came on, and the soldiers were obliged to go back to Rome.

3. In the spring they came again, but still they were not successful, and so they went on for several years, until at last they resolved not to go back in the winter, but to build huts in which the soldiers might live, and continue the war in the cold stormy weather, as they did in the summer.

4. The old Roman writers tell us that the siege

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lasted ten years, and they give wonderful accounts of the way in which the city was taken at last. They say that one very dry summer, whilst the Roman army was besieging Veii, the waters of a lake called the Alban lake, rose suddenly to such a height, as quite to cover the rocks near it. This was thought a great prodigy, and every one was talking of it. The siege of Veii had gone on so long, that by this time the soldiers on both sides were acquainted with each other, and the Veientines used sometimes to stand upon the walls and talk to the Romans below. One day whilst they were conversing in this way, about the rise of the Alban lake, an old soldier of Veii called out, "Veii shall never be taken till the water has run out of lake Alba." A Roman sentinel inquired what he meant; the man told him that he was repeating an ancient prophecy, and when he was afterwards taken by the sentinel and carried to the Roman chief, he declared again that if the Romans could drain the water out of the lake, Veii would be taken.

5. The Romans were great believers in such prophecies, and they sent directly to the oracle at Delphi, to know if the man's words were true. The oracle gave them an answer which agreed with the prophecy, and the Romans immediately set to work to cut a drain that might draw all the water from the lake, and convey it over the fields near. Such a drain is to be seen at this day, but whether it was really made at that time no one can tell. The people of Veii, it is said, were very much alarmed when they heard what the Romans were doing, and tried to frighten them from it, by declaring that it was foretold that soon after Veii should fall, Rome would be taken by the Gauls. The Romans, however, were not to be stopped by any such fears. They appointed one of their greatest generals, Camillus, to

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be dictator; and he employed a part of the army in digging a long underground passage, which reached from the outside of the walls quite to the middle of the town, and came out at the temple of Juno in the citadel or castle. When it was known that all the waters of the Alban lake were drained off, a plan was made for attacking the city. Some of the soldiers clambered up the walls, others tried to break down the gates, and a third party rushed through the long dark passage, till they were exactly underneath the temple of Juno.

6. The king of Veii was at that very time offering sacrifices to the goddess, who was considered to be the especial protectress of the city. The Roman soldiers stood below the temple and heard the very words which were spoken by the priest, and before any alarm could be given, they rushed forth upon their enemies. It was in vain for the Veientines to resist. The Romans within the city opened the gates to their companions without, and the whole army poured in. The king was killed, numbers of the inhabitants were taken prisoners, and the whole treasures of the city were given up to the soldiers. The statue of Juno was carried to Rome, and a temple was built for the goddess upon one of the Roman hills.

7. Camillus, the dictator, had a splendid triumph on his return to Rome. A triumph was the great reward of a successful general. It was a grand procession through the streets of Rome, in which all the prisoners and treasures taken in the war were displayed.

8. The triumph of Camillus, after the fall of Veii, was disliked by the Roman people, because it showed too much pride. He entered the city in a splendid chariot, drawn by four milk-white horses, and painted his face with vermilion. White horses were used

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particularly in honor of Jupiter and of the Sun; and the statues of the gods were generally painted with vermilion. It seemed, therefore, that Camillus considered himself equal to a god, and this the people were shocked at. What caused the soldiers to be still more angry, was his ordering them to return part of the spoils that had been taken from Veii, in order to assist him in making an offering to the god Apollo, which he had vowed to do, but had forgotten. Some time afterwards Camillus was accused of having hidden some treasures which he ought to have given up, and was obliged to go into exile.

CHAPTER XV.

INVASION OF THE GAULS.

ROME BURNT, 390.

B. C. 390. 1. CAMILLUS had not long been in exile before the Romans felt the want of his skill as a general; for the people of Clusium, a state in the north of Italy, sent to ask their assistance against the Gauls.

2. The Gauls were the inhabitants of that part of Europe which we now call France. They were a fierce, wild people, very tall and strong, with rough shaggy hair, which gave them a terrible look, and frightened all who saw them. The Alps lay between their country and Italy; but from time to time parties of these savages used to cross the high snowy mountains, and come pouring down upon the bright fruitful valleys of Italy, to the great alarm of the inhabitants.

3. This was the case now. The people of Clusium

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were not strong enough to resist them, and therefore sent for help to the Romans. The Roman senators, however, did not wish to go to war; and instead of raising an army they sent three sons of one of their senators, Fabius Ambustus, to try and make peace between the people of Clusium and the Gauls.

4. When the Roman ambassadors reached the camp of the Gauls they were taken before Brennus, the king, who was assembled with his council. They told him that they had come to make peace if possible, and asked him why he had invaded Clusium. Brennus replied, that his own country was too small for himself and his people. They wished no harm to the inhabitants of Clusium. They only desired to share their lands.

5. The Fabii inquired what right they had to claim the land of strangers.

6. "Our right is in our swords," exclaimed the fierce Gaul, grasping his weapon. "All things belong to the brave." After this speech there was no hope of peace. A battle followed, in which the three Fabii fought, and one of them killed a chief officer of the Gauls.

7. It was entirely against the customs of all nations for an ambassador to fight; and when the Gauls heard what Fabius had done they were exceedingly enraged, and swore that they would be revenged for such an insult. A message was sent to Rome, requiring the senators to make amends to the Gauls for the conduct of their ambassadors, but nothing was done to satisfy them; and a short time afterwards the news came that king Brennus and seventy thousand of his fierce soldiers were approaching towards the city.

8. This was terrible news for the inhabitants. An army was sent out, but it was defeated about eleven miles from Rome, near a small river called the Allia,

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a name which, as well as the day on which the defeat took place, was ever afterwards counted by the Romans as unlucky. The Gauls came on nearer and nearer, whilst the Romans sent away the women and children, and then began to make the best preparations they could think of for defending themselves.

9. Brennus remained for three days before Rome without venturing to attack it. He sent scouts or messengers to discover what the inhabitants were doing, and they brought him back word that the gates were open, and not a single human being was to be seen on the ramparts. It seemed difficult to believe that the Romans had left their city, and Brennus feared they wished to deceive him, but at length he could wait no longer, and he entered with his army. All was still and deserted. The Gauls could wander through the streets, and no one appeared to stop them; they could enter the houses,—they could seize upon every thing they liked, there was not a person to prevent them. At length they reached the forum. There sat eighty aged men in ivory chairs of state, and dressed in splendid purple robes. So still they were—so calm and motionless—they scarcely looked like living men. The barbarians approached them, they thought them to be gods. For some time they gazed upon them with awe. Then one bolder than the rest put forth his hand and touched the long white beard of Marcus Papirius, a venerable priest. Papirius considered this action as an insult. He struck the Gaul on the head. The soldier's reverence was gone in an instant. He cut down Papirius with his sword; and his companions, growing eager and angry, instantly followed his example. The poor old men were all murdered. And now the Gauls began to examine the city more closely. Part of it was built upon a steep rock; and when the barbarians looked up they saw a number of armed

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men standing upon the top of the strong walls. They knew then why it was that the city had been deserted. The Romans able to bear arms had shut themselves up in the capitol, with all the provisions that could be obtained, and were determined to defend themselves to the last. As for the eighty old men left in the forum, they were senators of very high rank, who thought that if they gave themselves up to death the gods would be satisfied, and would save their fellow-countrymen.

10. For eight long months from that time the Romans remained shut up in the capitol, suffering dreadfully from hunger, whilst the Gauls surrounded them below, unable to reach them, because the walls of the fortress were steep and high, and they could not clamber up, and yet resolved not to go away, although they had fully taken their revenge for the insult they had received, by plundering and burning the city. Rome was now a heap of ruins; and where it had once stood there were only wide desolate wastes, and a few houses still occupied by the Gauls.

11. Towards the end of the eight months, however, there was one attempt made by the barbarians to surprise the capitol, which had very nearly succeeded. In walking round the steepest side, a soldier observed the print of footmarks. They had been made by a daring young Roman, who was sent by his countrymen in the neighborhood to tell the Romans in the capitol some good news; namely, that Camillus (who was in exile at Ardea) had collected an army, and had defeated some of the Gauls when they were plundering the country. This young man swam across the Tiber and climbed up the capitol, and they were his footmarks which the soldier discovered. The Gauls had no sooner found out that it was possible to get up the steep bank, than they

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determined to try and do it themselves. At night, when it was very dark, a party of them made the attempt. They clambered up one after another, not without a great deal of difficulty; but just as the first soldier reached the top, there was a great noise heard,—the cackling of geese. They were sacred geese kept in the temple of Juno which was in the capitol, and the approach of the Gauls had frightened them. The religious feeling which had kept the Romans from meddling with them, notwithstanding the famine, was now rewarded. The cackling of the geese woke Manlius, a brave soldier, who started up, and rushed to the wall just in time to throw down the first Gaul, and as he fell all his companions fell with him, and so the whole plan came to nothing. Manlius was much praised and rewarded for what he had done; and the Gauls finding that, after all their efforts, there was no hope of surprising their enemies, or making them yield, at length proposed to leave the city, if the Romans would pay them a large sum of money.

12. It seemed as if there was nothing else to be done, and the proposal was agreed to. The old writers say, besides, that the Gauls used false weights in weighing the gold; and that when the Romans complained, Brennus threw his sword and belt into the scale, exclaiming, "Wo to the vanquished." They also add, that just at this time Camillus came with a large army, and when he heard what was going on, put a stop to it, declaring that Rome should not be redeemed with gold but with steel; and that a great battle followed, in which the Romans were victorious; but these accounts are not much to be trusted, and all we know certainly is, that the Gauls at length retired to their own country.

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CHAPTER XVI.

ROME REBUILT, B. C. 389.

B. C. 389. 1. The Gauls left Rome in a state of complete ruin. The first thing to be done, therefore, was to rebuild the city. But the people could not at first agree upon this point. Many of them wished to leave the place altogether, others could not bear the idea of giving up their ancient home; at length the point was settled by what was considered a lucky omen. Whilst the senators were talking about what was to be done, a centurion passed by with his men, and was heard to say—"Plant the banner here; for here it is best to stay." The senators directly came out to the people and declared they accepted the omen, and immediately every one set himself to work.

2. It was, of course, necessary to build as quickly as possible. So the people had bricks given them, and were allowed to dig stones for themselves; and then each person placed his house where he chose, and built it to suit his own fancy. The consequence was that the streets were narrow, crooked, and irregular, and thus they remained for a great number of years, till they were again destroyed by fire.

3. Camillus was now considered the chief person in Rome, and his courage and skill were very much wanted; for several of the states, which had been subject to Rome, tried to free themselves now that the Romans were so much less powerful. There were a great many wars and rebellions, but Camillus was victorious in almost every case.

4. The affairs of the city, however, were not as prosperous within the walls as they were without.

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The poor people had suffered grievously from the plunder of the Gauls, and the old complaints about debts and hardships began again.

5. One of the persons who felt the greatest compassion for the oppressed was Marcus Manlius, who saved the capitol. Seeing a poor old man carried away in chains, because he could not pay what he owed, Manlius immediately gave the money for him, and let him go home; and he then declared that as long as he had a pound of brass, no one should be made a slave for debt.

6. From that time Manlius made it his duty to help every debtor that he possibly could; and it is said that he assisted no less than four hundred. The gratitude of the poor may easily be imagined; but the patricians grew jealous, and accused Manlius of trying to stir up the people to rebellion, and at last they threw him into prison. The plebeians were so grieved that they put on mourning, and crowded round his prison threatening to set him free. After a little time the senators allowed him to come out of prison; but Manlius, being a proud man, was highly indignant at what had been done, and did really now encourage the plebeians to complain of their rulers; and at last he went so far that he was accused of high treason and sentenced to die. He was safe, however, for some time, for he shut himself up in the capitol with an armed band, but he was at length betrayed. A man came to him pretending to be his friend, and bring him some useful information; and whilst they were walking together along the edge of the Tarpeian rock, the traitor pushed him over and killed him.

7. The house of Manlius was pulled down, and none of his family ever after took the name of Marcus.

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CHAPTER XVII.

THE AGRARIAN LAW.

LICINIUS STOLO AND LUCIUS SEXTIUS, TRIBUNES.

B. C. 376.

B. C. 376. 1. The next persons who tried to help the plebeians were Licinius Stolo and Lucius Sextius, who were tribunes, about the year B. C. 376. It seems that they must have been very much in earnest in what they did; but there is a story told of the reason why Licinius first began to think of doing good to the plebeians, which would take away some of the credit from him if it were true. There is, however, great reason to doubt it.

2. One of the chief patricians in Rome at that time had, it is said, two daughters; one was married to Licinius, who was a plebeian, the other to Sulpicius, a patrician, and a consular tribune. Consular tribunes had not quite the same power as consuls, but nearly as much. Fabia, the wife of Licinius, was one day visiting her sister, when Sulpicius returned home after his public business was finished. The lictors came with him; for they always attended the chief magistrates. Fabia was quite frightened by the noise which they made when they knocked at the door to announce the arrival of such a great man. But her sister laughed at her, and reproached her for having married a plebeian. When Fabia went home, being very much vexed, she complained to her father and her husband; and from that time they determined not to rest till the great distinctions between the patricians and plebeians were done away with.

3. Whether this story be true or not, it is certain

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that some great changes were made about this time in the laws and government of Rome; and that greater honors were given to the plebeians. Amongst other things, it was settled that one of the consuls should always be a plebeian. A law was also proposed forbidding any person to have the use of more than a certain quantity of the public land; all which they occupied beyond this was to be allowed to the plebeians, on condition of paying a small sum to the state. This kind of law about public property is called an Agrarian law. Before this law was passed the patricians used to keep for their own use the lands which had been taken from other states, and cultivate them, and feed their cattle upon them, without allowing the plebeians to have a fair share in the enjoyment of them. And this was the cause of many great disturbances and quarrels at Rome.

4. It was a long time before the patricians would consent to these alterations; but Licinius and his friend Lucius Sextius went on year after year proposing that they should be made, and at last they gained their point, and Lucius Sextius was appointed to be the first plebeian consul. Still the patricians were determined to keep some power to themselves, and a new magistrate was appointed, called a prætor, who they said should always be chosen from the patricians. A great deal of the power and dignity belonging to the consuls was also given to him, but particularly the administration of justice.

5. About this time a dreadful plague broke out in Rome, and in order to drive it away, the people chose a dictator, for the express purpose of hammering a nail into the door of one of their temples. They fancied that by doing this they should please the gods, who had sent the plague amongst them. Camillus died of this plague. He was eighty years old.

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6. In the same year, we are told that a deep chasm or pit opened in the forum. The augurs said it would never close until the most precious things in Rome had been thrown into it. A young warrior, named Marcus Curtius, mounted his horse, which was ornamented with splendid trappings, and, with all his armor on, leaped into the gulf, declaring that Rome had nothing so precious as the arms and courage of her sons. The ancient writers declare that the chasm closed, and where it had opened there was afterwards a lake called the Curtian lake.

7. During this period, frequent mention is made of different invasions of the Gauls; for although they had gone back to their own country, they very often made their way into the heart of Italy again. Several stories are told of their great size and strength, and of single combats between a Gaul and a Roman. On one occasion, when the Gauls had advanced near to Rome, a warrior of enormous height, and very strong, challenged any Roman who was brave enough to come out and fight with him. Titus Manlius, a young man, accepted the offer. He dressed himself in plain armor, and went out to meet the Gaul, taking a buckler in his hand, and a short sword. The Gaul struck a heavy blow at him with his long sword, but Manlius contrived to escape it, and slipping under the giant's shield, stabbed him in two places. The huge Gaul fell to the ground, and Manlius cut off his head, and took a golden collar from his neck, which from that time he always wore, and from which he was surnamed Torquatus, or the Collared. He afterwards received a golden crown as a reward.

8. We can scarcely read this anecdote without thinking of the account given of David and Goliath in the Bible. At first sight the two stories seem very much alike; but there is one great difference, which can always be discovered between the actions

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of heathens and of the sincere worshippers of the True God. Titus Manlius went out to fight for honor; he trusted in his own strength and bravery, and he was rewarded by the golden crown and the praises of his countrymen. When David went against Goliath, we do not find that he trusted in himself at all. His hope was in God. His words to Saul were—"The Lord will deliver me out of the hand of the Philistine;" and when the proud giant came forth to meet him, he exclaimed—"Thou comest to me with a sword, and with a spear, and with a shield; but I come to thee in the name of the Lord of hosts, the God of the armies of Israel."

9. The wish of the Roman was that his name should be remembered with honor; the wish of David was that all the earth might know there was a God in Israel. The heathens do not seem to have understood that humility and meekness are virtues.

CHAPTER XVIII.

THE FIRST SAMNITE WAR,

BEGAN B. C. 343.

B. C. 343. 1. EVEN if the Romans had been peaceably inclined, which they certainly were not, they would have found it difficult to avoid war; for they were surrounded by a number of other states, who were continually disputing amongst themselves, and calling upon them for help. Besides this, they were becoming very powerful, and wished to make themselves chief over the other nations of Italy, and this could not be done without conquering them.

2. The great rivals of Rome at this time were the Samnites. Samnium was a very hilly country, to

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the south and east of the Roman territories. The inhabitants were hardy and brave, and, like the Romans, would have been very glad to become lords over the whole of Italy.

3. There were three great wars between the Romans and the Samnites. The first broke out in consequence of a dispute between two little states, one of which was assisted by the Romans, and the other by the Samnites.

4. The Romans gained the first great battle, and this was of immense importance to them. If they had lost it, probably they would have been subject to the Samnites, and we should never have heard of them as the conquerors of the world. But another battle which took place about the same time, in a different part of the country, is still more interesting, from the accounts that have been given of the courage and skill of a Roman officer called Decius Mus.

5. It happened that the consul who commanded the Roman army had led his troops into a very dangerous situation. They were shut in between steep hills, amongst the Apennines, and had no way of escape except through a narrow valley, which was entirely surrounded by the Samnites. The Romans gave themselves up for lost; but Decius Mus thought of a plan by which he saved them. He climbed up one of the cliffs that enclosed the ravine, and made a band of soldiers follow him. The Samnites were obliged to pass below this cliff to reach the Romans, and of course they tried to drive Decius away. It was not easy, however, to do this; and whilst they were fighting with Decius the rest of the army contrived to escape. Decius was left then in great danger, but he and his soldiers defended themselves with wonderful courage, and contrived to force their way through their enemies, and the next morning reached the Roman camp safely.

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6. Decius was rewarded by a crown of gold, and also by what was called the "besieger's crown," which was usually given by the soldiers to the generals who had relieved a town when it was besieged. This crown was made from the grass or wild-flowers which grew in the place, and it was thought the highest honor a general could receive.

7. It was the custom amongst the Romans to reward persons who had done good or great actions by giving them crowns.

8. Thus another reward nearly as honorable as this was the civic crown, which was made of oak leaves. This was granted to a person who had saved the life of a fellow-citizen. This first war with the Samnites lasted only two years, for insurrections and disturbances broke out in the Roman army, and the senators found it desirable to make peace.

9. Decius Mus was killed not very long after the Samnite war. His death made him even more famous than his life. It happened in a battle with the Latins, when he was consul.

10. Both the Roman consuls, it is said, dreamed that in this battle the general on one side must be lost, and the army on the other, and they agreed that if their own troops began to give way one of them would devote himself to death to appease the gods. When the battle began, the soldiers whom Decius commanded seemed about to yield; and Decius, remembering his resolution, repeated a solemn prayer always used on these occasions, and then rushed in amongst the enemy, and was killed fighting desperately. The Romans after this were victorious.

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CHAPTER XIX.

THE SECOND SAMNITE WAR,

BEGAN B. C. 326.

B. C. 326. 1. THE second war with the Samnites was caused something in the same way as the first; that is, it began by quarrels between Rome and other states, in which the Samnites interfered. But there is reason to think that the Romans were looking out for something to complain of, as they were too ambitious to be contented until the Samnites were quite conquered. One of the most remarkable events of this war is an instance of great want of sincerity and good faith on the part of the Romans.

2. It seems that they had not profited much by the danger they were placed in during the last war, when Decius Mus had saved them; they were still very careless in going through the valleys amongst the mountains; and at last, in one very narrow place, called the Caudine Forks, they were attacked by the Samnites, and completely defeated; so much so, indeed, that they were forced to give up all thoughts of continuing the war, and to consent to all which the Samnites asked. Amongst other things it was required that the Romans should give up all the places they had taken in the war, and that the two nations should be considered equal. The army was also obliged to pass under the yoke.

3. This was a very dreadful disgrace, but there was no way of escaping it, and to save their lives at all was more than they had reason to expect, for Caius Pontius, the general of the Samnites, might easily have killed them if he had not been mercifully

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inclined. They were all therefore compelled to submit—even the consuls were not spared; but Pontius showed them kindness afterwards, and gave them clothes and provisions to help them on their journey back to Rome.

4. They reached the city quite overpowered with shame; and the senators met together to consider what was to be done. After some time it was proposed that the agreement which had been made should not be kept; but that the officers and soldiers who had sworn to it should be delivered up to the Samnites, as persons who had deceived them by promising what could not be performed. This was a most unfair way of dealing, for the Samnites had spared the Romans only on account of these promises. The Samnites would not have any thing to do with the affair. They would not receive the officers and soldiers who were sent to them, and they were so much more noble than the Romans, that although they had six hundred hostages in their hands, they did them no harm, but allowed them all to go back to Rome. After this the war went on as it had done before for more than twenty years. Then the Samnites were obliged to beg for peace, and acknowledge the Romans as their masters; but they were not entirely subdued until a long time afterwards.

5. About this time one of the Roman consuls, Appius Claudius, caused a great road to be made from Rome to Capua. It was formed of stone blocks, which fitted quite closely to each other, and two carriages could go upon it abreast. The remains are to be seen at this day, and it is still called the Via Appia, or the Road of Appius. The Romans said it was the queen of roads.

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CHAPTER XX.

THE THIRD SAMNITE WAR,

BEGAN B. C. 298.

B. C. 298. 1. The third Samnite war began like the other two. It broke out in the year B. C. 298, in consequence of the help which the Samnites gave to some of the enemies of Rome; but the Samnites must have wished long before to free themselves from the power of the Romans, and no doubt were glad to take advantage of the first occasion which offered for quarrelling with them.

2. During this war the Gauls again invaded Italy and joined with the Samnites against the Romans. We are told that in one great battle, when the Gauls and the Samnites had united their forces, and the Romans were very nearly defeated, the son of Decius Mus gave himself up for his country in the same way as his father. He believed that if he delivered himself up to death, the gods would favor the Romans, and he repeated the set form of words, after the Roman pontiff or chief priest, and then rushed forward and was slain. The Romans took courage after this and gained the victory.

3. In the last regular battle which was fought between the Samnites and the Romans, Caius Pontius, the Samnite general, who had been so merciful to the Romans at the battle of the Caudine Forks, was taken prisoner.

4. The Romans, instead of remembering his generosity to them when they were in distress, carried him to Rome, where he was led in chains through the city at the consuls' triumph, and afterwards be-

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headed. This is considered one of the most disgraceful actions which the Romans ever committed.

5. The third Samnite war lasted about eight years. When it was ended the Romans had gained their wish, for the Samnites were entirely subject to them.

6. The town of Herculaneum, which lies buried beneath the lava of Mount Vesuvius, and which is so interesting to all persons who go to Italy, belonged to the Samnites and was taken in this war.

CHAPTER XXI.

PYRRHUS, KING OF EPIRUS,

LANDED IN ITALY, B. C. 281.

B. C. 281. 1. THE Romans were by this time masters of a great part of Italy. But they had still some powerful enemies in the south. There was a city there called Tarentum, which lay on the seacoast, with a very fine harbor, and a great deal of rich country about it, particularly famous for its flocks of sheep, and the beautiful wool which they produced. That part of the Mediterranean, on which the town was situated, is still called after it, the Gulf of Taranto. A quarrel began between the inhabitants of this place and the Romans, by the Tarentines doing mischief to some Roman ships, which appeared one day to be making their way into the harbor. The Romans sent as usual to ask satisfaction for the outrage; but their ambassadors were only laughed at by the insolent Tarentines—and as soon as they returned to Rome and told how they

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had been treated, it was determined to declare war. The Tarentines, on their part, were resolved to resist the Romans as much as possible, and thinking that if they could obtain help from abroad they should be more likely to conquer, they sent to Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, begging him to join with them.

2. Pyrrhus was one of the most distinguished kings of that period. He was then about thirty-seven years of age;—his character was generous, noble, and brave, and he had such an art of pleasing that he made friends of almost all who came near him. The idea of carrying on a war in Italy, and perhaps founding a kingdom there was very pleasant to him, and he willingly agreed to the proposal of the Tarentines.

3. He crossed over from Greece in the year B. C. 281, and landed in Italy with an army of men, a good many horses, and twenty elephants. The people of Tarentum were indolent and accustomed to luxurious habits, and liked amusing themselves much better than working or fighting; but Pyrrhus, as soon as he came to the city, forced all who could bear arms to become soldiers, and ordered the theatres to be shut; and, in short, made every preparation necessary for a great war. The Romans on their side were not idle; they would not listen when Pyrrhus sent ambassadors to them to propose to settle the dispute between them and the Tarentines, and it seemed as if they were entirely bent upon war. In the first great battle which took place the Romans fought most bravely. They advanced seven times against their enemies, and each time they were forced to retreat, because their horses were frightened at the sight of the elephants which Pyrrhus had brought with him. After the seventh time the whole Roman army fled, and Pyrrhus took possession of the enemy's camp. This battle had given him a

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high opinion of Roman courage; and when he visited the field of battle the next day, and saw that the men had all fallen with their faces to the enemy, he exclaimed:—"With such soldiers the world would be mine, and it would belong to the Romans if I were their commander." The victory, however, was not gained without great loss, and when Pyrrhus was congratulated upon having conquered, he replied: "One more such victory, and I should be obliged to return to Epirus without a single soldier."

4. Peace was now proposed again, and Pyrrhus sent an ambassador to settle the terms whom he thought must please the Romans; Curius was his name, he was the greatest friend Pyrrhus had; his manners were particularly agreeable, and he easily persuaded other persons to do as he wished. He very nearly induced the Romans now to make peace; probably they would have done so, but for Appius Claudius, the same senator who made the great road mentioned in the last chapter. Appius was at that time a very old man, lame and blind, but he caused himself to be carried into the senate, and spoke so earnestly against submitting in any way to Pyrrhus, that Curius was obliged to go back without having gained his point. Pyrrhus immediately began the war again. Several battles were fought, and many prisoners taken. The Romans offered money for their release, but Pyrrhus would not accept it. He allowed them however to go to Rome in order to be present at a great festival, and said they might remain if the senators would make peace. The prisoners tried very much to persuade the senators to do so, but they could not succeed, and they were therefore all obliged to go back to Pyrrhus. The senators even threatened to put any person to death who should endeavor to stay behind. They were so particular about their word being kept.

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Afterwards, it is said, that a person in the army of Pyrrhus offered to poison the king if the Romans would reward him, but the Romans were exceedingly indignant, and Fabricius the consul told Pyrrhus all about it. Fabricius was a very honorable man, who once before had refused to do something that Pyrrhus wished when he thought it would be wrong, and Pyrrhus was now so struck with his generosity and nobleness, that he exclaimed:—"Noble Fabricius! it were as easy to turn the sun from his course as that man from the path of honor."

5. Pyrrhus, in return for this kindness shown him by the Romans, sent back all the prisoners without ransom. A truce was then agreed upon, for a short time, and Pyrrhus crossed over to Sicily to help the Sicilians against the Carthaginians. Three years afterwards he came back to Italy again, but he was not by any means as successful then as he had been before. The Romans were by this time more accustomed to his mode of fighting, and knew how to frighten his elephants; and, at last, after being quite defeated in one great battle, he left Italy never to return to it again. Pyrrhus was a noble-minded, brave man; but he was very fond of seeking for adventures, and took no care of his own country, whilst he was warring with others. He was killed in Greece, by a tile which a woman threw upon his head.

6. After the war with Pyrrhus was ended, the Romans had not much difficulty in making themselves masters of the whole of Italy. Their dominions had increased more and more, and we can fancy how surprised their first king, Romulus, would have been if he could have known what a great and powerful people they had become. But it was the will of God that they should become yet more powerful, and govern a great many countries besides Italy, and of this we shall hear something in the next chapter.

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CHAPTER XXII.

THE FIRST PUNIC WAR,

BEGAN B. C. 264.

B. C. 264. 1. It was said that Pyrrhus, when he granted a truce with the Romans, crossed over to Sicily to help the Sicilians against the Carthaginians. This is the first time that the Carthaginians have been mentioned, but they were a people well known to the Romans, and had often before made treaties with them about trade. For they were not so much given to war, as other nations in those days, but employed themselves mainly in commerce; that is, in carrying goods and merchandise from one country to another, for the purpose of exchange. This made them understand how to manage ships, and brought them a good deal of money; so that when they went to war, they were able to hire troops to fight for them, without being forced to become soldiers themselves, and thus neglect their traffic and business. The name of their chief city was Carthage. The place where it stood may be found by looking to the map of Africa, on the seacoast, southwest of Sicily, about eleven miles from Tunis. Once it was so large, that it is said to have been twenty-three miles round, and the riches it contained were immense. But all that remains of it now are some cisterns and large drains or sewers. The inhabitants, in the course of their trading, spread themselves along the northern part of Africa, and passed over to Spain, where in time they founded a city, which they called New Carthage, a name which the place still keeps, only slightly changed into Carthagena. They also had possession of no small part of Sicily. The wars be-

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tween this people and the Romans are generally called the Punic Wars; Punic being another name for Carthaginian, and signifying the origin of their race. For though it is not exactly known how long it was before the building of Rome that Carthage was founded, yet it is agreed that the first settlers there came from Phœnicia.

2. The first Punic war began in Sicily, where, as it has been said, the Carthaginians had settled themselves. The greater part of the island was theirs, the rest belonged to Hiero, king of Syracuse. But a band of men, called Mamertines, who were in fact little better than robbers and plunderers, had come over from Italy, and by foul means taken possession of a town to which they had not the least right. The town which they seized was Messana, a place that still gives its name to the narrow strait which divides Sicily from Italy. King Hiero tried to punish them, and gained several victories over them, upon which some of them appealed for help to the Romans, and some to the Carthaginians. The Romans knew well what a wicked set these Mamertines were, but they could not make up their minds to refuse them assistance, because it gave them an excuse for getting into Sicily, which they coveted; and, as they were more and more jealous of the Carthaginians, they were in hopes by this means that a regular war would break out between them: and so it happened.

3. The Carthaginians, who assisted the Mamertines, acted like friends to them, and persuaded Hiero to make peace with them; and then the Romans had no further reason to interfere. But they were so bent upon the war that nothing would induce them to give it up, and when the Mamertines did not want their help, they still prepared an army, and sent them word that they were coming to free them from the dominion of the Carthaginians. This could

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have been nothing but a pretence, yet it served their purpose, and from that time the war between Carthage and Rome began.

4. Hiero, king of Syracuse, was on the side of the Carthaginians at first, but after the Romans had gained a victory over him, he consented to become their friend, and continued so ever after.

5. The Carthaginians were much better off than the Romans in one respect. They had a number of ships which they managed well, and in these they sailed about the coasts of Italy, landing at different places, destroying the towns, and doing such mischief that the Roman senators soon saw that if they wished to conquer they must have a number of ships also. They therefore determined to build a fleet, and their orders were obeyed so quickly, that within sixty days after the trees which were to build the ships were cut down, a hundred and thirty were finished. They were awkward vessels, however, and not made to last long. The Carthaginian ships were very superior, and the only way in which the Romans could get the better of them was by throwing a kind of bridge across from their vessels to those which they were fighting with. These bridges were fastened with strong hooks of iron, and then the soldiers ran across them, and jumped down upon the decks of the enemy's ships. The first time this was tried the Carthaginians grew frightened and took to flight.

6. The war went on for several years without either party gaining the upper hand, but at length the Romans landed in Africa, took several of the Carthaginian towns, and approached close to Carthage itself. They must have done a great deal of harm, for the country about Carthage was very beautiful, and there were a great many pretty villas or country houses built near it, which the Romans destroyed and robbed just as they chose.

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7. Regulus was the Roman consul at this time; and there is a very interesting story told about him.

8. He was a brave and resolute man, and able to endure a great many hardships; but he does not appear to have been a very good general. Still he had gained a victory over the Carthaginians at sea, and it seemed most probable that he would conquer them on land; for he and his army surrounded Carthage, and the inhabitants were shut up in the city, and dying from heat, and fever, and hunger. They suffered so much, indeed, that they were induced to beg for peace, and Regulus might, if he had chosen it, have put an end to the war entirely; instead of which, he asked such hard terms, that the Carthaginians could not consent to them; and the ambassadors, who had been sent to him, went back to the city to tell the people that they must still go on as they had done before. There was, however, one hope for them. Xanthippus, a Greek, a very clever man, was at that time in the city. He had had a great deal of practice in war, and he undertook to train the people and teach them, that they might be able to withstand the Romans; and in this he succeeded so well, that the Carthaginians left the city, went out against the Romans, fought a great battle, and took Regulus prisoner.

9. Regulus was a prisoner for five years; at the end of that time the Romans were so much the conquerors, that the Carthaginians again began to think of peace. Regulus was sent to Rome with the Carthaginian ambassadors, to convey the terms of peace; but before he set off, he was obliged to promise that if the senators would not agree to all which the Carthaginians wished, he would return to Carthage again as a prisoner.

10. It must have been very pleasant to him to go back to Rome after such a long absence, to see all

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his friends and relations again, and no doubt he longed to remain with them; but when the senators asked him whether he would advise them to agree to all which the Carthaginians proposed, he was obliged to speak honestly, and he told them "No, not even to exchange prisoners."

11. The consequence of this advice was very sad for Regulus. The Carthaginian ambassadors prepared to go back to Carthage, and Regulus was to return with them. His friends entreated him to stay, but he would not listen to them; and after embracing them for the last time, he set out on his sorrowful journey to Carthage.

12. When the Carthaginians heard of the advice he had given, their anger was furious; and in order to punish him, it is said that they cut off his eyelids, and exposed him to the scorching blaze of the sun, and afterwards put him into a cask stuck round with nails, the points of which were turned inwards; and thus, it is said, killed him with pain, hunger, and sleeplessness. The account of these cruel tortures we have reason to believe, however, is not true; although Regulus died not long after his return to Carthage.

13. The offer of peace having failed, war was now begun once more, and was continued for about nine years longer. The Carthaginians had a very famous general to command them some part of the time, called Hamilcar Barca, or Lightning, who was not only a brave and good general, but also a kind-hearted generous man. On one occasion, having lost a battle, he sent to the Roman consul to ask for a truce, that he might have time to bury his dead. The consul replied harshly and proudly, that he ought to be concerned about the living rather than the dead. Some time afterwards the Romans had occasion to ask the same favor; and Hamilcar Barca instantly

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agreed, saying that he carried on war only against the living.

14. But all Hamilcar Barca's skill could not prevent the Romans from gaining the victory. They were much improved now in the management of their ships, and their men were better sailors. Thy were, in consequence, able to fight with the Carthaginians, as well by sea as by land; and the Roman citizens were so determined not to be stopped by any difficulties, that when the first fleet was nearly destroyed, they fitted out another at their own expense. It was a battle at sea which brought this long war to an end. The Romans attacked the Carthaginian vessels when they were heavily laden with corn, and took sixty-three of them; a hundred and twenty were sunk, and the rest scattered. After this, the Carthaginians were so completely crushed, that they were obliged to make peace upon any terms. They consented to give up the island of Sicily, and all the other islands between Sicily and Italy,—not to make war any more with Hiero, king of Syracuse,—to restore all the Roman prisoners, without receiving any ransom, and to pay a large sum of money. And so, after twenty-two years, ended the first Punic war.

CHAPTER XXIII.

THE SECOND PUNIC WAR,

BEGAN B. C. 218.

B. C. 218. 1. TWENTY-THREE years passed away before war was regularly declared again between Rome and Carthage; but the two nations were not friends to each other all the time;—they were always inclined to quarrel, though they were not open enemies. During these twenty-three years

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the Romans had to defend themselves against the Gauls, besides carrying on war with the inhabitants of Sardinia and Corsica, and trying to prevent the subjects of Teuta, queen of Illyria, from robbing ships at sea; and these troubles gave the Carthaginians time to recover their strength, and prepare for another conflict.

2. Hamilcar Barca was the person whom they most depended upon for advice. His wish was to make a settlement in Spain like that in Sicily, which was now taken from them. He thought it would be of great use in any future wars; and as the Carthaginians possessed one town there already, he hoped by going there to gain the hearts of the people, and by degrees make them subjects of Carthage. The greatest wish Hamilcar had, was to take revenge upon the Romans for the injury they had done his country; and before leaving Carthage he took his little boy, Hannibal, to one of the heathen temples, and there told him to swear upon the altar, that as long as he lived he would be the constant enemy of Rome. The child took the oath, and never forgot it. Hamilcar Barca commanded the Carthaginian army in Spain for about eight years, and very much increased his own reputation and the power of his country amongst the inhabitants. He was killed in battle, and his son-in-law, Hasdrubal, had the command in his stead, and founded the town of New Carthage or Carthagena.

3. Hannibal by this time had grown up to be a young man, of a generous disposition, very well informed, fond of study, and extremely handsome, and with manners so pleasant and winning that every one loved him. When Hasdrubal died, he was at once fixed upon as the best person to succeed him.

4. The Carthaginians now ruled over all the south of Spain, except the city of Saguntum. Hannibal wished much to obtain possession of this place; he

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therefore induced some of his allies to quarrel with the Saguntines and then send to him for help, which he was very willing to grant. The Saguntines on their part applied to the Romans, and thus the Romans and Carthaginians were once more on the point of being at open war.

5. This conduct of Hannibal does not appear quite right, it does not suit with his character for justice and truth; but even the best of heathens had very false notions of right and wrong, and seem rather to have encouraged ambition and revenge than not.

6. The Romans sent to warn Hannibal against meddling with Saguntum, but he would not pay the least attention to them, and the city was entirely destroyed. They afterwards dispatched ambassadors to Carthage to complain of Hannibal. One of these ambassadors, Quintus Fabius, folded his toga, or robe, as if something was wrapped up in it, and said to the Carthaginian senators, "Here we bring you peace or war—choose whichever you please."—"Give us whichever you think proper," was the reply. Fabius unfolded his toga, and said, "I offer you war."—"We accept it," exclaimed the Carthaginians, "and shall carry it on in the same spirit in which we accept it." So the second Punic war was openly declared in the year B. C. 218.

7. Hannibal no sooner heard that war was proclaimed than he prepared to fulfil the oath which he had sworn, when a boy, and to attack the Romans in their own country. The Alps lay between him and Italy: they were steep and rocky, and almost impassable in many parts, from the snow which covered them; but Hannibal was not to be kept back by any difficulties. He gave the command of Spain to his brother, and set forth with a large army. Many of his soldiers became frightened after they had gone some way, and several thousands returned home; but

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Hannibal still proceeded, with 50,000 foot-soldiers and 9,000 horsemen. The Romans heard of his intentions, and they sent an army and a fleet, commanded by one of their best generals, Cornelius Scipio, to stop him; but they do not seem to have imagined that Hannibal could ever really succeed in reaching Italy. It appeared almost impossible for such an army to cross the barren cold Alps, where there were no roads, and no houses to shelter them. Scipio, therefore, did not make the haste which he should have done; and before he reached Spain, Hannibal was far on his way to Italy. He had gone by the banks of the Rhone, and passed through the country of the Gauls until he reached the foot of the Alps. The tribes of Gauls who were settled in this neighbourhood did every thing they could to stop him, and added greatly to his difficulties. His army was now much smaller than when he began his journey—so many men had died on the road, and those who were left could not see the huge mountains rising up to the clouds, without great fear as to whether they should ever be able to cross them. As for Hannibal himself, nothing seemed to alarm him, and without any delay he ordered his men to begin their march upwards. For fifteen days the Carthaginian army had to bear incredible hardships and danger in crossing these terrible mountains. The Gauls hid themselves amongst the rocks and rolled down large stones upon them; the ground was in many parts covered with deep snow, and the sharp steep rocks and frightful precipices often made it almost impossible to proceed. Hannibal, however, cheered his soldiers by the hope of victory and plenty which they might gain in Italy. From a height, which gave them a view of the fertile plains below, he pointed in the direction of Rome, and told them that, by climbing the Alps, they had, as it were,

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scaled the walls of that great city. The soldiers were supported by his example and went on cheerfully, but at length they came to a place where the path was completely broken away, and they could see nothing before or on each side of them but tremendous precipices. The foot-soldiers began to descend, but the side of the mountain was covered with ice and snow; and their feet slipping, they had nothing to lay hold of. Many rolled down and were crushed to pieces, and Hannibal saw that it would be in vain to let the rest follow. There was but one thing to be done—to cut a new road through the rock, and this immense work he actually undertook. The men labored for three days. At the end of that time the road was made, and the whole army—all the men, horses, and elephants, passed along it, and soon afterwards reached the foot of the mountain in safety.

8. The dangers which Hannibal had met with in passing the Alps must have made every thing else appear light to him; he might otherwise have had cause to fear when he found himself in Italy; his army containing not half the number of soldiers whom he had set out with, and the Romans waiting for him. Scipio was there. He had returned upon discovering what a mistake he had made in not hastening to stop Hannibal at first, but he still delayed longer than was necessary, and gave Hannibal time to advance some way into Italy before he met with him. The two armies did meet however at last, on the banks of the river Ticinus, and there a battle was fought, and the Romans were defeated. Scipio himself was wounded, and the Romans, now in real alarm, began to think that Hannibal and the Carthaginians would be much more difficult enemies to conquer than they had suspected. Scipio did not choose to risk another battle until he had help. He therefore retreated, and in the mean time the consul, Sempro-

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nius, who had been sent by the Romans to waste and plunder the coasts of Africa, and so do mischief to the Carthaginians in their own country, was quickly called back to assist in defending Italy.

9. Hannibal followed Scipio; for he was anxious for another battle, hoping that if he could conquer, he might settle his soldiers in the towns and the country for the winter, and give them rest. But Scipio was not inclined to fight, until he had recovered from his wound and could command his army; and when Sempronius arrived, and expressed his wish to attack Hannibal, he tried to dissuade him from it. Sempronius, however, gained his point, and the battle began. It was fought on the banks of the Trebia, a broad river, but not deep. The two armies were on opposite sides. Hannibal told some of his men to conceal themselves amongst the bushes and shrubs by the river. The rest he ordered to prepare themselves for the battle, by eating a good breakfast and warming themselves at their fires. Sempronius did not take the same care of his troops. Before they had eaten any thing, they were commanded to wade through the water, although it was bitterly cold, a piercing wind blowing, and the snow driving in their faces. The soldiers did as they were ordered; but, when they reached the other side of the river, they were so completely benumbed that they could not handle their arms, and had lost all spirit to defend themselves. The Carthaginians were completely victorious, and but a small part of the Roman army escaped to tell the story of their misfortune and disgrace.

10. Hannibal after this established his soldiers peaceably for the winter; and the Romans, instead of giving way to despair, prepared to raise fresh armies.

11. When the spring came, a new general was appointed to command them, the consul Flaminius.

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Flaminius set out with his army for Ariminum, a town now called Rimini, but on his arrival he heard that Hannibal was on his way to Rome. To reach Rome, indeed, was Hannibal's great object, and in order to obtain it he had marched for three days and three nights through marshes, which were so unhealthy that many of his men and horses died, and he himself completely lost the use of one eye. Flaminius followed him directly, and overtook him near the lake Trasimenus. The hills around this lake came very near each other, so as to leave a narrow valley between them. Flaminius reached this valley when it was dark, and pitched his camp in it. He was not in any fear, for he thought that the Carthaginians were before him. At daybreak he again began his march. There was a fog rising from the lake, which was at the end of the valley, and the Romans could not see plainly. Suddenly they found themselves attacked on all sides. The Carthaginians had stationed themselves upon the heights, and surrounded them. A battle followed, so dreadful as never to be forgotten. The Romans and Carthaginians fought with such desperate eagerness, that an earthquake is said to have taken place at the time without their perceiving it. The consul Flaminius was slain, and fifteen thousand of his army perished; many were drowned in the lake.

12. When the news of this defeat reached Rome, the people were in the greatest possible alarm. They immediately created Fabius Maximus dictator. Fabius was a cautious man, but very determined. He resolved not to risk any more battles, but to follow Hannibal from place to place, hoping to bring him into difficulties, and at length weary him out. It was expected by every one that Hannibal would march immediately to Rome, but he could not venture to do this. His army was much diminished in

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number, and no fresh troops were sent him from Carthage; and Rome was too strong a place to be besieged, unless he could be certain of taking it. He therefore attacked some of the smaller towns, and his soldiers ravaged the country, and made the people give them provisions.

13. Fabius followed him wherever he went, never attempting a battle, but only skirmishing; he contrived, however, sometimes to bring Hannibal into great difficulties. On one occasion the Carthaginians were shut up in a narrow pass, when there seemed no way of escape; but when night came on, Hannibal ordered bundles of brushwood to be tied to the horns of 2,000 oxen, and setting fire to it, drove them towards his enemies. The Romans were frightened at the strange sight and moved away, and thus the Carthaginians got out of their hands.

14. The Roman senators began to think after a time that Fabius was wrong in being so very cautious, and they gave orders that Minucius, his master of the horse, should have equal power, and command one half of the army. Minucius was rash, and was soon tempted to fight with Hannibal; but he was very nearly defeated. Fabius, however, instead of being contented to leave him to his fate, helped him as much as he possibly could, and quite saved the army; and Minucius was so struck with his noble conduct, that when the battle was over he said he did not wish to command any more; he would yield all his power to Fabius. Fabius soon after gave up the dictatorship, and then the consuls were generals again.

15. The next great battle which Hannibal fought with the Romans was the battle of Cannæ in the following year. Cannæ was a little town in Apulia, on the east side of Italy. The battle was fought on the second of August. Unfortunately for the Ro-

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mans, the wind blew the dust into their faces, and prevented them from seeing. It was a very dreadful battle for the Romans. Forty-five thousand persons were killed, and among them one of the consuls, and so many knights that three bushels of their rings are said to have been found on the field. Some of the men of rank, who escaped to a neighboring town, met together to consult what was to be done; and they began to consider whether it would not be well to leave Italy altogether, and go to some foreign court; but a brave young man, Scipio Africanus, who was one of the military tribunes, hearing what they were thinking of doing, rushed into the room with his sword drawn, and declared that he would suffer no person to forsake his country. This he swore solemnly himself, and every one present then did the same. Scipio Africanus afterwards became very celebrated. He was about eighteen years of age at that time.

16. After the battle of Cannæ, the commander of the Carthaginian cavalry, whose name was Maherbal, wished Hannibal extremely to go to Rome. Hannibal refused, declaring it was not possible. Then Maherbal was very sorry, and exclaimed:—"Alas! thou knowest how to gain a victory, but not how to use one."

17. As Hannibal was now able to give his soldiers rest, he placed them in the town of Capua, which was friendly to him. Capua was a very beautiful city, but the people who lived in it were accustomed to great luxuries, and indulged themselves in every way they happened to fancy. When they heard that Hannibal was approaching, it is said that they killed all the Romans who were amongst them by putting them into hot baths and suffocating them. After this they allowed the Carthaginians to come into the city.

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18. The bad example of the Capuans did great harm to Hannibal's soldiers. They lived now at their ease, and were not inclined to bear hardships, and after staying the winter at Capua, they became like different persons. The Romans, on the contrary, did their very utmost to make up for their past losses. They never thought of despairing or submitting, and would not let any one mourn more than thirty days, but set to work to form new armies, and make greater preparations than ever for war; and because the public money was nearly gone, the senators brought their own gold to be used for the general good.

19. Hannibal, also, was very anxious for fresh troops, but he had enemies at Carthage who were constantly trying to injure him; and when he sent his brother Mago with a bushel of the knights' rings, which had been picked up at Cannæ, to tell what victories he had gained, and entreat for more help,—many of his countrymen could scarcely be persuaded to think he had done any thing to deserve it. They did, however, offer him some aid at last, and his brother Hasdrubal, who was in Spain, was allowed to leave that country and join Hannibal in Italy.

20. The Romans had a great deal to attend to at this time; for, besides trying to drive Hannibal out of Italy, they were obliged to keep up a war in Spain, and another in Sicily. We may remember it was in Sicily that the first quarrel between the Romans and Carthaginians broke out. The island had been given up to the Romans. Hiero, however, king of Syracuse, was allowed to keep his own dominions, and was always their firm friend; but he died about this time, and his successors chose to ally themselves with the Carthaginians, which caused the war between Rome and Carthage to be carried on again in Sicily.

21. One of the most remarkable events in the

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Sicilian war is the siege of Syracuse. There was a very clever man living in Syracuse named Archimedes. He was particularly noted for the wonderful discoveries he had made about air and water, and the use of screws and pulleys, and mechanical instruments. The stories which are told of what he was able to do by means of his inventions are almost too strange to be believed; but he certainly contrived to defend the city for a long time, and he might have done so much longer if the Romans had not found an opportunity, when the Syracusans were off their guard, to take it by surprise. Archimedes, we are told, continued his studies whilst the siege was going on, just as quietly as if nothing was the matter. He was found in this way, seated at his table in his own room, by a Roman soldier, who struck him on the head and killed him. The Roman general was very sorry for his death, and caused a monument to be raised to his memory, which he had planned himself during his lifetime, describing one of his wonderful discoveries. Syracuse was one of the largest and finest cities in that part of the world, and contained a great deal of treasure, with many beautiful pictures and statues, all of which were sent to Rome. It was the sight of these which first taught the Romans to care for such things. After Syracuse was taken the Romans gained possession of all Sicily, and the Carthaginians were obliged to leave it entirely.

22. One of the first things which the Romans did, when the spring returned and they were able to begin the war again, was to surround Capua with their army. Hannibal had then left the city, and was attacking some of the smaller towns of Italy: he did not attempt to save it, and the people of Capua were too cowardly to defend themselves properly. The inhabitants were justly afraid of falling into the hands of the Romans, but at last they made up their minds

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to submit. Many persons, however, of the highest rank, killed themselves before their enemies entered the city. The Romans treated the inhabitants very cruelly, for they were indignant at the help they had given to Hannibal. As for Hannibal himself, he still ravaged the country, and once even approached quite close to the gates of Rome, but he did not yet attack it; for the Romans were regaining their power by degrees, and the only hope that was left him was the arrival of his brother Hasdrubal from Spain.

23. Hasdrubal had received the orders of the Carthaginian senate, and even before they arrived would probably have joined his brother, but the war in Spain prevented him. There were two brothers who had been commanding the Roman armies in Spain whilst Hannibal was invading Italy—Cornelius and Publius Scipio. Both were good generals; but Hasdrubal at last defeated them, and they were slain within thirty days of each other. The account of this disaster alarmed the Romans extremely. They did not know whom to send to Spain as a commander, but a young man whom we have heard of before—Scipio Africanus, the son of Publius Scipio—proposed to go, and though he was only twenty-four years of age, his offer was accepted. Scipio Africanus was a handsome, graceful person, and very much liked, and was especially remarkable for paying great attention to the forms of religion; but he afterwards showed himself to be of a proud, overbearing disposition. At the time of his arrival in Spain, Hasdrubal was bent upon setting out for Italy, and his whole mind was so given to this object that he paid but little attention to all that Scipio did; and, even after Scipio had gained a victory over him, thought it better to hasten to Italy as quickly as he possibly could. The journey was easier for him than

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it had been for Hannibal; for the Gauls did not harass him in the same way: it was, in fact, performed almost too quickly, as he arrived in Italy before Hannibal expected him. The letters, also, which were sent to his brother, were never received. The messengers who carried them fell into the hands of the Romans, and all Hasdrubal's plans were betrayed to his enemies. The consequence was, that before he could reach Hannibal, or Hannibal could come to help him, the Roman consuls having joined their forces, fell upon him as he was endeavoring to get away, and put his army completely to the rout. Thousands of his men were slain; and he himself, after fighting with desperate courage, rushed in amongst his enemies, and was killed likewise. A Roman cut off his head. Six days afterwards, the Roman army returned to the place where Hannibal was stationed. Some of the prisoners were sent in chains to inform him of the victory, and instead of welcoming his brother, Hannibal saw the head of Hasdrubal tossed into the midst of the camp by the Roman who had killed him. The unfortunate general gazed upon the ghastly features in horror, and exclaimed, "Oh Carthage, I see thy doom." Carthage was, indeed, doomed, though many battles were to be fought for its defence.

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CHAPTER XXIV.

SECOND PUNIC WAR—*continued.*

SCIPIO AFRICANUS LANDS IN AFRICA, B. C. 204

B. C. 204. 1. SCIPIO remained in Spain three years, and at the end of that time the Romans were masters of the whole country. The great wish of Scipio then was to cross over to Africa, and attack the Carthaginians in their own country, as Hannibal had invaded Italy, hoping to take Rome. In one respect, Scipio was more fortunate than Hannibal, for he had allies in Africa, who engaged to help him. There were then two princes in Numidia, a country near to Carthage, named Syphax and Masinissa. These princes were often quarrelling with each other, because Masinissa laid claim to part of the dominions of Syphax, and they always took different sides in the wars between Carthage and Rome. There was also another great cause of hatred between them, for both had wished to marry the same person—Sophonisba, the daughter of Hannibal Gisco, a Carthaginian of high rank.

2. Sophonisba was extremely beautiful and accomplished, and Masinissa loved her very much, but Hannibal Gisco said she should be the wife of Syphax, and from that time Masinissa determined to take part with the Romans; and sending secretly to Scipio, promised to support him when he should reach Africa.

3. As soon as all the necessary preparations were made, Scipio set sail for Africa. The Carthaginians heard that he was coming, yet they did not make any attempt to stop his landing. There were, however, armies ready to oppose him afterwards,

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commanded by Hannibal Gisco and Syphax. Masinissa at first pretended to be the enemy of the Romans, but he very soon openly went over to them. Scipio could not at once proceed to Carthage, but he was very successful in his schemes against the Carthaginians. One night, in particular, as the African soldiers were asleep in their beds, they were wakened by the smoke and flames of a dreadful fire. The tents were made of straw and dry branches, and the flames rushed over them with horrible swiftness. The unfortunate soldiers in despair fled from the camp, but it was only to find a worse enemy waiting for them. The Roman troops surrounded the camp, and stood ready to kill all who tried to save themselves. Hasdrubal and Syphax escaped, but they had lost so many men that but little hope was left them of being able to defend themselves against the Romans.

4. After this disaster Syphax withdrew to his own country, but Masinissa followed and attacked him. A battle was fought, in which Syphax was defeated. Masinissa took possession of Cirta, the capital city, in triumph. When he entered the palace Sophonisba met him. She must have been very miserable, for her misfortunes were great; but that which she dreaded above all other evils, was that she might be given over to the Romans and exhibited in triumph through the streets, walking before the car of the conqueror. In her agony she entreated Masinissa to kill her rather than permit her to suffer such a dreadful disgrace. He swore to save her, yet it seemed scarcely possible to keep his oath. She was in fact the prisoner of Scipio, for Masinissa was only fighting under him; but he thought he could save her if she were his wife, and he offered to marry her that very evening. Sophonisba consented, and when Scipio arrived, Masi-

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nissa presented her to him as his wife. The rage of the Roman general was extreme; he still commanded Masinissa to give her up, and the prince was afraid to disobey. But when he told Sophonisba that she was to be the prisoner of Scipio, he added, that he had one way of redeeming her from slavery, and that was by death. He then left her, and a slave entering, presented her with a cup of poison. Sophonisba took it with perfect calmness. "Let my husband," she said, "know that I die contented since I die by his orders," and immediately drinking the poison she expired.

5. The Carthaginians were now brought to great distress, and they determined to call back Hannibal from Italy. The order was obeyed with sorrow, for Hannibal remembered the vow he had made to avenge his country, and he could not bear to give up the prospect of destroying Rome. But it was impossible to refuse, and as soon as the necessary preparations could be made, he set sail for Africa. Before proceeding to Carthage, however, he thought it would be desirable to obtain a meeting with Scipio, and, if possible, arrange between them terms of peace.

6. The meeting of the two generals must have been very interesting to both, for they were two of the most celebrated men that ever lived. They did not however agree in giving peace to Carthage, and the great battle of Zama followed. It was the last of this long war. The Carthaginians fought with the utmost bravery, but they were defeated; and Hannibal, in despair, hastened to Carthage to advise that peace should instantly be made. He had left the city as a youth, following his father, with the vow of hatred to Rome. He returned to it, a worn, weary soldier of forty-five; all his proud hopes were over, his brother whom he loved was

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dead, and thousands and thousands of the soldiers who had followed him were dead likewise; his country was invaded, and the enemies whom he had hoped to destroy were about to take possession of Carthage.

7. Brave deeds and great names sound well in history, but we can little tell the bitter sorrows that must be borne, and the dreadful scenes that must be looked upon by those who set their hearts upon them.

8. The peace which the Carthaginians now made was in fact submitting entirely to Rome. They were obliged to give up their possessions in Spain, and the islands in the Mediterranean, the whole of their fleet, except ten ships, and all their elephants. They were besides compelled to restore all the Roman prisoners—to pay a large sum of money—to acknowledge Masinissa as king of Numidia—to promise never to make war again without the consent of the Roman people, and to allow Scipio to take away with him a hundred young men as pledges that these agreements should be kept.

9. Scipio was honored with a splendid triumph when he returned to Rome. It was then that the surname of Africanus was given him. The unfortunate Syphax was exhibited in the procession, walking in chains. He was kept a prisoner for his whole life.

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CHAPTER XXV.

WARS IN GREECE.

A ROMAN ARMY SENT TO GREECE, B. C. 200.

B. C. 200. 1. THE second Punic war was now over; but the Romans as usual began another directly afterwards, with Philip the Third, king of Macedon. This king had given assistance to Hannibal whilst he was in Italy, but the Romans then were too much engaged with the Carthaginians to exert themselves much against him; now, however, they were glad to take the first opportunity of declaring war. Macedonia was close to the states of Greece. King Philip invaded Attica, one of these states, and besieged the city of Athens; and the Athenians sent to Rome for aid, which was very willingly given; since, besides their anger against Philip, the Romans knew that by interfering with the affairs of Greece they might gain power for themselves whilst they assisted their friends.

2. For three years they carried on the war very successfully, professing to wish only that the Greeks were free from the power of the king of Macedon, but secretly desiring their own good, and often stirring up the different states to quarrel with each other, in order that they might be called in, and settle the disputes to their own advantage. At last the Macedonians were so far conquered, that the king consented to make peace, and to leave the Grecian states at liberty; and then the Romans turned against another enemy, Antiochus, the king of Syria.

3. Antiochus was the monarch of a great empire, ruling from the straits of the Dardanelles, then called the Hellespont, to India. He was the friend of

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Philip of Macedon, and had assisted him in his wars.

4. There was at that time a stranger at the court of this king, whose advice might have been of the greatest service to him—Hannibal, the Carthaginian. After the peace proclaimed between Rome and Carthage, Hannibal stayed five years in his own country, trying to improve the government and do all the good in his power; but finding that these endeavors only made him disliked, he at length left Carthage and took refuge with Antiochus the Great. Antiochus received him with honor; but would not listen to his advice. He interfered in the affairs of Greece; and because some of the Greek states were discontented at being kept subject to the Romans, notwithstanding their being called free, he went over to Greece with an army, and fought several battles there against the Romans, in which he was defeated. Then being alarmed, he returned to his own country, thinking that of course he should be safe there. But he was mistaken; the Romans followed him, and had sent an army into Asia, commanded by a brother of Scipio Africanus, who was afterwards called Asiaticus.

5. Antiochus now gave Hannibal the command of his fleet, and no doubt the Carthaginian general must have been very glad to have once more a prospect of fighting against his enemies the Romans. But before he could distinguish himself in any way, Antiochus ventured a great battle by land against Scipio Asiaticus, in which he was so entirely defeated, that he was obliged to flee for his life and consent to make peace, and to do all which the Romans chose to ask.

6. Hannibal was then in great danger, for amongst the many things which were required of Antiochus, one was that Hannibal should be given up to his

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enemies. When Hannibal heard of the agreement, he fled to the court of Prusias, king of Bithynia, in Asia Minor. There the Romans pursued him with their hatred, and ambassadors were sent to demand him.

7. Prusias was a coward; and though he would not give Hannibal up himself, he told where he might be found. The Romans surrounded the house, and Hannibal made one last effort for his life. He tried to escape, but finding it impossible, and unable to bear the thought of being carried captive to Rome, he took some poison which he had long been accustomed to carry about with him, and destroyed himself.

8. There is much to admire in the character of Hannibal; and when we are shocked at this last action of his life, we must remember that according to the heathen ideas self-murder was not a crime.

9. The same year that Hannibal died his rival Scipio Africanus died also. Scipio's character was not as good as that of Hannibal. He was haughty and sometimes cruel, and not as self-denying and simple in his way of life. His countrymen accused him of taking to himself some money which was due to the government; and Scipio's rage was so great in consequence, that he left Rome and went to live at his country-house in Campania. He died, and was buried in exile; for he had sworn that his ungrateful country should not possess even his bones.

10. We must not think that the wars with Macedonia were ended, although peace had been made. Philip, king of Macedon, died of a broken heart at having listened to a false accusation against his favorite son and given his consent to his death. This accusation was made by Perseus, another son—a cruel, jealous prince, who succeeded to the throne when his father died. Perseus had many friends,

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but he did not know how to keep them; for his love of money was so great that, although he promised to pay the persons who assisted him in his wars, he could not make up his mind to keep his word, and in consequence his allies deserted him. His power, however, made other nations jealous of him, and as he hated the Romans as much as they hated him, an occasion was easily found of declaring war. This was very unfortunate for Perseus, for although at first it seemed a little doubtful which would conquer, the Romans at last defeated him entirely, and he was obliged to escape for his life. The battle which was fought between them is called the battle of Pydna. The Romans took possession of Macedonia, and the unhappy king was obliged to wander from place to place, until at length, in utter despair, he gave himself up to his enemies.

11. They carried him a prisoner to Rome; and when the consul who had gained the victory over him drove through the streets followed by the shouts and praises of his countrymen, Perseus, the once-powerful king, was led in the procession with his son, loaded with chains, and worn with grief and misery. He remained a prisoner for the rest of his life, and his son is said to have gained his livelihood by the practice of turning.

12. The Romans were now acknowledged lords over Greece, Macedonia, a great part of Spain, and Gaul. They had also been called upon to decide in some quarrels of the kings of Egypt; and as usual took the opportunity of gaining a great deal of power in the country. The inhabitants of the states which were subject to them were allowed to keep their own customs, and were in general governed by their own monarchs; but the Romans were in fact the masters; as none of the conquered nations dared do any thing which they forbade.

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13. The Romans had by this time grown very wealthy and fond of luxury. Their wars with Greece made them more so; for the Greeks were famous for their elegance and extravagance, and the Romans tried to imitate them.

14. Their city also was much improved in beauty; new bridges, and colonnades, and theatres were built, and statues of celebrated people were erected in temples and public places.

15. Their houses were furnished magnificently, and the Romans prided themselves upon having a great many slaves and giving expensive entertainments. The ladies spent so much money upon their dresses that a law was once passed forbidding them to wear very gay clothes, or to have more than a certain quantity of gold about them; but they would not bear this long, and it was done away with.

16. Yet at this very time their religion and manners were most barbarous. They occasionally offered human sacrifices to their false gods, and delighted in a cruel amusement, which consisted in seeing men, called gladiators, fight in public till one of them was killed. Their habits of life were so bad that we cannot read of them without being shocked, and we shall find that as their riches and luxuries increased their vices increased also. And if wealth and elegance will not make men good, neither will cleverness, for we read of very clever men about this time, some of whose works have come down to us, and are read and admired at the present day. The greater part of them wrote plays. Some were Romans, others were foreigners who settled in Rome. There were clever lawyers, and physicians, and orators, and architects amongst the Romans; men, indeed, able to do almost every thing, except to find out how they ought to worship God.

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CHAPTER XXVI

THE THIRD PUNIC WAR,

BROKE OUT B. C. 149.

B. C. 149 1. THE last war between Rome and Carthage is one of the most disgraceful parts of the Roman history; for the Carthaginians kept the terms agreed upon most strictly, and the only pretence which the Romans could find for war, was their defending themselves against Masinissa, king of Numidia, who was an ally of the Romans.

2. Masinissa was now a very old man, but he did not seem at all inclined for peace, and was constantly troubling the Carthaginians, entering their country, and taking possession of their towns and forts. The Carthaginians complained to the Romans, as they were not allowed to carry on war without their consent; but the Romans took part with Masinissa, and the Carthaginians were then obliged to defend themselves.

3. The truth was, that the Romans secretly longed for the destruction of Carthage. There was one person especially at Rome who was constantly urging it upon them. This was Cato, the censor; a rough, stern man, exceedingly strict in insisting upon what he thought right; but at the same time very harsh and unforgiving. He had heard, from the ambassadors who were sent to Carthage to settle the disputes with Masinissa, that the city was becoming very rich and prosperous again, and he declared that it might at any moment turn against Rome; and, from that time, he ended every speech which he made in the senate by adding, "Carthage must be destroyed."

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4. This opinion was soon taken up by others; it was said that the Carthaginians had broken the peace, by fighting against Masinissa, and therefore a large army was sent to Sicily, which it was well known might afterwards proceed to Africa. The Carthaginians dispatched ambassadors to Sicily to explain their conduct, and ask what the Romans required; but the only answer which was given them was an order to send three hundred of the most distinguished persons in Carthage, as hostages to Rome. The Carthaginians consented; but the Romans still passed over to Africa, and stationed themselves at Utica, within a few miles of Carthage. Again the Carthaginians sent envoys to inquire what more was demanded. They were told that they must give up all their weapons; and soon after hundreds of suits of armor, swords, javelins, and all kinds of warlike instruments were sent to the Roman camp. Then at last the Carthaginians supposed their cruel enemies would be satisfied; but another order came —they were to leave Carthage, and allow it to be levelled with the ground: they might build another city, but it was to be ten miles distant from the sea, and without walls or fortifications.

5. The people of Carthage rose with one heart against this cruel command: they closed the gates instantly, and carried great stones to the top of the walls in preparation for defence, and, in their indignation, all the Italians who happened to be in the city were put to death. Every one was resolved to die sword in hand rather than submit to the proud Romans. The account of their exertions is almost beyond belief. Their weapons had been delivered up, but the metal which could be taken from their houses and buildings was used to replace them. Prisoners were released, and their chains formed into instruments of war. When iron and brass were not

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to be had, they melted down statues, vases, and even the ornaments of private families; and when tow and flax were needed for cords, the ladies of rank cut off their long hair and gladly gave it for the use of their country. Men, women, and children all joined in the work: palaces were turned into workshops, and every day 144 bucklers, 300 swords, 1000 darts, and 500 lances and javelins were made.

6. This was the beginning of a defence which lasted for five years. The Carthaginians were not entirely without help from without. One of their generals, named, like Hannibal's brother, Hasdrubal, had been for some time in banishment with others of his countrymen, and they now formed an army and returned to assist in protecting the city. They kept outside the walls, and used to skirmish with the Romans, and often were successful against them, though their numbers were too few to drive them away. But the chief hope of the Carthaginians was in the strength of their city, which was built upon a point of land that stretched far out into the sea. It was thus surrounded by water on three sides, and ships were able to protect it; and, in order to defend it on the land side, there were three great walls built across the Isthmus. The town was also divided into three parts; the harbor, Megara a suburb, and the citadel. All these different parts were fortified, so that their enemies could not after climbing one wall take the city, but were obliged to make themselves masters of each part separately.

7. The Romans soon perceived that it would be much more difficult to destroy Carthage than they had at first imagined, and they sent a new general to command their armies—Scipio Æmilianus. This Scipio was not a very good man, though he was a brave and skilful soldier. He had not a great, noble

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mind; for he thought much of himself, and loved to make a display and be admired. He was the son of the general who defeated Perseus, king of Macedon, and did not belong to the Scipio family by birth, but had been adopted as the grandson of Scipio Africanus, on which account the name was given him.

8. Scipio Æmilianus set sail for Carthage, with the full belief that he should subdue it. His intention was to prevent the inhabitants from obtaining provisions, and so force them to yield from hunger. Immediately upon landing he took the command of the Roman army, and attacked the suburb of Megara. The Carthaginians could not withstand him, and he obtained possession of it. Hasdrubal was now within the city, and in revenge for the loss of Megara, he placed all the Roman prisoners who were in his power on the wall facing the camp, and after torturing them in the most cruel manner, caused them to be dashed down headlong. The next thing Scipio did was to build towers and dig ditches across the isthmus, to prevent any friends of the Carthaginians from helping them by land; and then he set to work to stop up the harbor, and hinder any provisions from being brought by sea. For this purpose he ordered his men to cast huge stones into the sea at the entrance of the harbor, piling them one upon another to make what is called a mole, and at first the Carthaginians laughed their work to scorn. But the Romans went on diligently, and the great wall, which was to shut out the sea and prevent ships from coming into the harbor, rose higher and higher, till at length it became a huge broad barrier, which no vessel could pass.

9. The Carthaginians did not laugh then—they saw that the Romans had been too clever for them; but when men are in great danger they often become very ingenious. And as it would have been in vain

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to attempt to destroy the mole, the Carthaginians cut a new passage to the sea through some rocks, and built fifty ships quickly and quite secretly; and, before the Romans in the least suspected what they were doing, the little fleet sailed forth from the harbor. It seems as if the Carthaginians would then have done well to attack the Roman fleet at once, but they did not. After braving their enemies in this way, the ships went back again. Though this first plan of Scipio's was defeated, he still kept to his idea of stopping the provisions, and his next endeavor succeeded. He left Carthage and attacked the town from which all the food was supplied. When this was taken the last hope of the unhappy Carthaginians was gone. They were compelled to bear the dreadful pangs of hunger, besides being treated in the most cruel way by Hasdrubal, who made himself a complete tyrant over them. Their state was very fearful. We cannot wonder that the Romans at length gained the point for which they had been so long striving.

10. It was at night that they succeeded in scaling the last wall which shut in the city. Every thing was then in their power; the gates were opened, and the troops entered. They assembled in the market-place, from which three steep streets led up to the citadel. Tall houses, six stories high, rose on each side of these streets; the roofs were flat, and the frightened inhabitants fled to them, carrying stones and heavy weights, which they threw down upon their enemies as they passed along. One division of the Romans rushed into the houses to revenge themselves. They fought from room to room, conquering one house after another; and the Carthaginians opposed them at every step, till at last they reached the roofs of the houses, where many were killed by the Romans; and others in desperation flung them-

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selves into the streets below. The groans of the wounded and the dying were mingled in that awful hour with the loud shouts of the conquerors; but they brought no feeling of mercy to the hearts of the fierce Romans. On they passed, thinking only of victory; whilst the poor famished Carthaginians, who were suffered to escape, devoured the dead bodies of their fellow-citizens to satisfy their ravenous hunger.

11. At length the Romans once more collected together before the gates of the citadel, and an order was given to set fire to the three streets. The misery of the Carthaginians was then at its height. The fire spread over the city, destroying palaces, and public buildings, and splendid houses, with all the rich furniture and costly treasures that had been heaped together year by year, and bringing a horrible death upon thousands of the aged and the helpless, who died by the scorching flames or the crushing weight of the falling houses.

12. For six days the fire raged, and the inhabitants, who had sought refuge in the citadel, gazed upon it with the certainty that it would be vain any longer to resist their terrible conquerors. On the seventh day they humbled themselves to entreat for mercy. It was granted; but the mercy of the Romans was too often cruelty. Fifty thousand men and women left the citadel, and were sentenced to be sold as slaves. Hasdrubal, his wife and children, and 900 deserters, whom Scipio had refused to pardon, remained behind. They stationed themselves in the temple of Æsculapius, which was built upon the highest part of the citadel. Scipio drew his army round it; but the garrison defended themselves at all points both by day and night. The cowardice of Hasdrubal's character was now shown. Seeing no possibility of escape, he secretly left the temple, threw himself at the feet of Scipio, and entreated for

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his life. Scipio promised to spare him; but the next day he brought him forth in sight of the temple, to exhibit him to his former friends. The wife of Hasdrubal came out upon the roof of the building to behold him. She was dressed in her richest robes, prepared, it might have seemed, for a joyful festival; her children were by her side. With bitter taunts she reproached her husband for his desertion, and then ordering the temple to be set on fire, she stabbed her children, threw their bodies into the flames, and died herself, with her companions, amidst the burning ruins.

13. As Scipio afterwards looked from the height of the citadel upon the desolation which war had caused, tears, it is said, rushed to his eyes, and turning to Polybius, the historian, who had accompanied him from Italy, he repeated two lines of the poet Homer:

"The day will come, when Troy shall sink in fire,
And Priam's people, with himself expire."

"What do you mean?" inquired Polybius. "This," replied Scipio, "may hereafter be the fate of Rome."

14. According to a decree of the Roman senate, Carthage was entirely burnt and then razed to the ground, and a curse was pronounced on whoever should rebuild it; and when Scipio left Africa, a mass of blackened ruins marked the spot where one of the most beautiful, wealthy, and powerful cities in the world had stood.

15. Three months afterwards another city, famed for its splendor and its treasures, fell a prey to the Romans. This was Corinth, in Greece, which had rebelled against the Roman power, together with some of the other Grecian states. It was first plundered and then burnt. Many of the beautiful statues and pictures for which the Greeks, and especially the Co-

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rinthians, were celebrated, were taken to Rome. Thus Greece, as well as Africa, fell into the hands of the Romans, and both countries, like Macedonia and Thessaly, were governed in future by officers sent from Rome, with the title of proconsuls.

16. At this period, the Romans completed the conquest of Spain. Scipio Æmilianus, who, like his adopted grandfather, was called Africanus, on account of his victories in Africa, distinguished himself greatly in this war, but he showed his cruelty also; for, on one occasion, he caused the hands of 400 persons to be cut off, because they were inclined to assist the town of Numantia, which he was besieging.

17. The inhabitants of Numantia are very famous for the resistance they made to Scipio. They defended themselves for ten years, and when at last they submitted, they were so thin, and weak, and ghastly, from hunger, that only fifty persons could be found amongst them fit to follow in the triumph of Scipio when he returned to Rome.

18. During these foreign wars, the Romans were at peace at home, except about the time when Numantia was taken. There was then a great insurrection amongst the slaves, who had been brought from the different conquered countries, and who were treated very cruelly. At first it seemed as if this insurrection would be dangerous, but afterwards it was put down. Twenty thousand of the slaves were killed by the sword, and some were nailed on crosses in the public roads.

19. Crucifixion was the worst and most shameful kind of punishment by death amongst the Romans; and never therefore inflicted on a Roman citizen, but only on those whom they considered the vilest and most worthless of mankind, such as their slaves. We have learned to think of it very differently, for a cross is now the sign of every thing which is most sacred.

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20. Besides the conquests of the Romans, their dominions were also at this period increased by the death of Attalus, king of Pergamus, who left his kingdom to them in his will. He was a weak, wicked prince, and it is supposed that the Romans themselves forced him to do it.

CHAPTER XXVII.

THE GRACCHI.

TIBERIUS GRACCHUS ELECTED TRIBUNE, B. C. 133.

B. C. 133. 1. THE history of the Gracchi, and of their attempts to relieve the poorer citizens of Rome, is the next important point to be noticed.

2. Tiberius and Caius Gracchus were the grandsons of the first Scipio Africanus, the rival of Hannibal. Their mother, Cornelia, was his daughter. She was a very remarkable person, good and clever, as well as beautiful and elegant. Her daughter Sempronia married Scipio Æmilianus.

3. Cornelia took great pains to educate her children well, and as they grew up she became very proud of them. A lady one day came to pay her a visit, who was dressed very splendidly, and wore a great many jewels. Whilst they were talking together, she begged Cornelia to show her some of her ornaments. Cornelia sent for her sons, and when they appeared, she said, "These are my jewels, and their virtues are my ornaments." She had indeed much cause for satisfaction. Her sons were honorable, kind-hearted, handsome, and engaging. Their father had been famous for his uprightness and benevolence, and they were like him, especially Tiberius, the elder, who always took the part of oppressed per-

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sons, and was particularly desirous that the Romans should be less luxurious, and more strict in their manners and customs. His mother, we are told, thought so much of his talents and power, that she persuaded him to offer himself as a tribune of the people. "I am commonly called," she said, "by way of honor, the mother-in-law of the second Africanus. Why do they not call me the mother of the Gracchi?" She lived to have her wish fulfilled, but it brought her sorrow and desolation for the remainder of her days.

4. The same year in which Scipio Æmilianus took Numantia, B. C. 133, Tiberius Gracchus offered himself as a tribune, and was chosen. The first thing he did was to bring forward an old law which had been much neglected, and which he thought would be a great benefit to the poor. This law was to prevent any person from occupying more than a certain portion of the public lands. We may remember that it had been passed some years before, but the rich did not choose to pay attention to it, and still went on using the land as their own; or, at least, paying only a very small sum of money for it, and employing the slaves whom they had taken in wars in cultivating it, instead of the people of Italy; so that the poor were left to live as they could, without work, or land, or money.

5. When Tiberius first proposed to restore the old law, and to give the people some of the public land, almost every rich person in Rome was indignant with him. He was abused and called by hard names, and Octavius, another tribune, declared that it should not be done; but Tiberius would not be stopped, and found means to prevent Octavius from holding his office of tribune any longer.

6. This was considered very wrong in Tiberius, and his enemies complained; but he knew that he

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had acted for the best, and when Octavius was no longer tribune, the law was passed. It was about this time that Attalus, king of Pergamus, left his kingdom and his treasures to the Romans, as was mentioned in the last chapter. Tiberius immediately proposed that the treasures should be divided amongst the poor citizens to help them in buying cattle and things necessary for working the lands that were to be given them; and the great senators, in consequence, were more angry with him than ever. Indeed he was so much hated, that his life would have been in danger, if he had not been a tribune, and his person therefore held sacred. When the year of office was over, Tiberius offered himself again to be chosen, for besides his wish of doing good, it was the only hope he had of safety.

7. The election took place about harvest-time, when most of the respectable country-people were engaged, and could not attend. The enemies of Tiberius, seeing that he was likely to be chosen, declared that as so many persons were absent, the election was not lawful, and they would not let it be finished till the following day.

8. Tiberius well knew what this meant, and was afraid that some evil might happen to him if he went to the senate again; but his friends came to him early the next morning, and persuaded him to go. The business began, and whilst it was going on, Fulvius Flaccus, a friend to Tiberius, came up to him, and told him that the senators were at that very moment planning to kill him. As soon as Tiberius heard this, he gathered his robe around him, as if preparing for flight, and put his hand to his head, which was the signal for calling his friends to his assistance. Immediately there was a great disturbance. Some persons collected around Gracchus to defend him, whilst a body of the

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senators rushed from the place of meeting, armed with sticks and clubs and the legs of the benches on which they had sat, and knocking down every one who came in their way. Tiberius endeavored to save himself, but in his haste unfortunately fell; and whilst attempting to rise, he was struck on the head and stunned: a few more blows from the enemies who surrounded him, killed him. His body was dragged through the streets, and thrown into the Tiber, together with those of three hundred of his friends, who were killed in the tumult which followed his death. A wealthy and hard-hearted patrician, Scipio Nasica, was the chief enemy of Tiberius, and some have even said that it was he who murdered him; but he was punished for his cruelty, for although the senators took his part, the people were so angry with him that he was obliged to leave Rome. He never returned, but died in exile.

9. Scipio Æmilianus came back to Rome about this time. Though he was the brother-in-law of Tiberius Gracchus, he did not agree with him, and said that if he had tried to stir the people up to rebellion he deserved to die. Scipio began to oppose the plans which Tiberius had brought forward for the good of the people. One day in particular he was very earnest upon this subject, and the discussion which was begun was left without being ended. It was intended to be finished the next day; but when the next day came, Scipio Æmilianus was found dead in his bed. He had been murdered, but the senators dared not inquire by whom. When such a dreadful crime was allowed to pass unnoticed, the Roman government could have had but very little power.

10. Cornelia must before this have seen how much happier it is to live a private retired life than

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to be put forward in places of authority. She no longer desired public honors for her children, and entreated Caius, her only surviving son, not to follow his brother's example. She wrote most sad letters to him, begging him at least to wait till she was dead before he offered himself for the tribuneship, so that she might not feel the misfortunes which he must bring upon himself by it. But Caius was not to be daunted by fears. He was several years younger than Tiberius—full of energy, brave, and without any thought for himself, and the idea of following out his brother's plans was so constantly in his mind, that even in his dreams the form of Tiberius seemed to appear before him, reproaching him for delay, and telling him that it must be his fate to live the same life and die the same death.

11. It was about three years after the death of Tiberius Gracchus that his brother Caius was made tribune. He immediately began, like Tiberius, to introduce laws for the good of the poor; and found quite as much trouble in consequence. All his plans were opposed, and the senators endeavored to gain the affections of the people from him, by bringing forward one of their own party who pretended to be as great a friend to the poor as Caius, but who in reality only intended to deceive them.

12. Caius, however, went on very zealously. He tried in every possible way to benefit his distressed fellow-countrymen, but his enemies were too cunning for him. The people began to like him less because so much was said against him; and after he had been twice chosen as tribune, and offered himself a third time, they would not elect him.

13. Caius, like Tiberius, knew that his life would not be safe when he once ceased to be a tribune, and it was soon clear that the senate were deter-

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mined to revenge themselves upon him, for they proposed to do away with all his laws, and to give the consuls as much power as if they had been dictators. Dictators could do any thing they chose—nothing could stand against them. When Caius heard this, he prepared to defend himself. Fulvius Flaccus, his brother's friend, was his friend likewise, and proposed that they should collect their followers and station themselves upon Mount Aventine, one of the seven hills upon which the city was built. Caius consented, but he was not at all willing to fight against his fellow-countrymen, and took no weapons with him except a dagger, which he put under his robe. As he was leaving his house, his wife endeavored to stop him. She held his little son in her arms, and seizing his robe, entreated him for the sake of his child, and for her own sake, to consider what he was going to do, and whether the murderers of his brother were not preparing the same fate for him. The unhappy Caius burst into tears, and could not answer. He strove to tear himself away from her, but she clung to him, and followed him a little distance, until at length, worn with misery, she sank down fainting in the street, and was carried to the house of her brother.

14. There was civil war now in Rome between Caius Gracchus and his friends on Mount Aventine, and the senators and their party in the city. But it did not last very long. When Mount Aventine was attacked, Fulvius Flaccus was killed, and Caius was obliged to escape for his life; only one person, a slave, was with him. They fled to a wood, and there they intended to hide themselves, but their pursuers came after them. Caius dreaded to fall into the hands of such cruel enemies, and when he found that they were close upon him, he com-

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manded his slave to kill him. The man plunged his dagger into his master's breast, and being resolved not to outlive him, thrust it also into his own, and expired by his side.

15. The head of Gracchus was cut off, and carried to the consul. A reward had been promised for it, which was to be its weight in gold. The money was given, but it was found upon examination that the brains had been taken out, and the skull filled with lead to make it heavier. The body of Gracchus was at first thrown into the Tiber, but it was afterwards taken out and carried to his mother Cornelia, who caused it to be buried with funeral honors. Cornelia never recovered the loss of her noble sons. She never mentioned them but with tears, and upon her death a statue was erected to her, with the inscription which she had so earnestly desired, "Cornelia, the mother of the Gracchi."

CHAPTER XXVIII.

WAR WITH JUGURTHA, KING OF NUMIDIA; FIRST DECLARED, B. C. 111.

B. C. 111. 1. After the disturbances at Rome, in the time of the Gracchi, the next important event is the war with Jugurtha, king of Numidia. Masinissa, the old king, who made himself so famous in the third Punic war, left his dominions at his death to his son Micipsa. Micipsa had two children, Hiempsal and Adherbal, and an adopted son named Jugurtha. These three he desired should reign together. Jugurtha was a young man, very

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clever, very handsome, and agreeable in manner; but proud, treacherous, and cruel. He did not choose to reign as an equal, for he desired to have the kingdom for himself, and to gain this object he caused Hiempsal to be murdered. This wicked action filled Adherbal with alarm, as he supposed that he should share the same fate. He applied to the Romans for protection; but when Jugurtha knew it, he sent large sums of money to the senators, to bribe them; and in consequence, instead of promising to assist Adherbal, they said they would divide the kingdom between him and Jugurtha, which they did, taking care to give Jugurtha the best share. Adherbal could not resist, for scarcely any one dared to resist the Romans; but, as was naturally to be expected, he and Jugurtha quarrelled again, and proceeded to open war. Jugurtha besieged Cirta, Adherbal's capital city. The inhabitants forced Adherbal to yield it up, because Jugurtha had promised to treat them well; but he completely broke his word, for he put the soldiers and foreign merchants to death, and then seized Adherbal, and after torturing him in the most cruel manner, killed him.

2. The Romans were forced to take notice of this, and they declared war against Jugurtha in the year B. C. 111; but he bribed the generals to make peace, and then broke his agreement as he chose. At last he was summoned to Rome to answer for his conduct, and though he was a king, he was obliged to go, because Numidia was subject to the Romans. He took with him large sums of money, which he gave to the senators to induce them to be his friends, and very probably he would never have been punished, if he had not, whilst he was at Rome, caused the murder of one of Masinissa's grandsons, who was living there. Bomilcar, one of his generals, actually committed the murder; but it was well known that

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he was ordered to do so by Jugurtha, and they were both obliged to leave Rome instantly, and war was declared.

3. The Roman senate made Cecilius Metellus the commander of their armies, and he chose Caius Marius to be, what was called, his legate or lieutenant, the next in command to himself. They were both very celebrated persons, but not at all alike in character. Metellus was honorable and unselfish, and had a great deal of energy; but he had one great fault, which was pride, and this brought many troubles upon himself and his country. Marius was a man of low birth; his manners were rough and rude, but he was very ambitious, and liked power just as much as if he had been born to it; and as he had great talents, he rose from a common soldier to be one of the first people in Rome. He and Metellus were very good friends at first, but they were not persons likely to suit each other long. They were successful, however, in the war against Jugurtha, and after some sieges and battles, bribed Bomilcar, Jugurtha's general, to take the part of the Romans. Bomilcar persuaded another of the Numidian generals to do the same; in fact, Jugurtha had no one really to depend upon, and though he fought bravely, and commanded well, he was in great danger of being entirely conquered.

4. During this time Marius and Metellus were learning to dislike each other more and more. Marius found fault with Metellus, and said he could command better himself, and Metellus was jealous of Marius, and looked down upon him. Marius hearing that consuls were to be chosen at Rome, proposed to go and offer himself to be one; but Metellus openly scorned him, thinking it absurd that a man of low birth should be chief ruler over a people like the Romans. Marius however did go, and

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was chosen; and the first thing he did afterwards, was to have Metellus recalled from Africa. This was a great trial to Metellus, for Marius was to have the command instead of him. But he could not disobey the order, and he went back to Rome, when he was in some measure rewarded for his honorable services, by a splendid triumph, and by having the name of Numidicus given him. Marius was provoked at this, but he had other things to think of now, besides his jealousy of Metellus, and he set out for Africa, having as one of his chief officers, Lucius Cornelius Sylla.

5. Sylla, of whom we shall hear a great deal by-and-by, was a man of noble birth, clever, and accomplished. He resembled Marius in being selfish and ambitious, but as he was a person of good education, and what we should call gentlemanlike habits and manners, he knew how to conceal his wishes and command his temper. Still he was just as wicked, perhaps more so than Marius, and equally determined to have his own way, whatever suffering he might bring upon other people.

6. When Marius landed in Africa, he and Jugurtha began the war in a manner which showed they were determined to carry it on resolutely. Jugurtha was assisted by his father-in-law, Bocchus, king of Mauritania, but he could not stand against Marius, who went on taking one place after another until nearly the whole of Numidia had submitted to him. There was one place, however, the castle of Mulucha, where all the king's treasures were kept, which it seemed almost impossible to subdue; it was built so strongly upon the top of a smooth rock that no one could climb up. The only way up to it was by a very narrow path cut in the rock, in which two men could scarcely walk abreast. Marius tried again and again in different ways to take the castle, but

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never could succeed. One day it happened that a soldier who was filling his pitcher at a spring, observed some snails crawling up the rock near. He watched them, and remarked that the cracks in the rock where they were to be found were moister than on the other side. He put his feet into these soft holes, and by that means clambered quite up to the top and came down without being seen. He did this twice, to be quite sure that it would be possible to make use of the discovery, and then he went and told Marius. Marius collected a party of brave men, and ordered them to mount the rock whilst another party pretended to attack the castle on the other side. This was done, and the men reached the top of the wall safely, and then sounded a trumpet. The noise frightened the people in the castle; they ran to the place from whence the sound came, and left the direct pathway without a guard, and the Romans rushed forward, broke down the gate, and the castle was taken.

7. Jugurtha took refuge in the dominions of Bocchus, when he found that the Romans were gaining ground so fast. There was, however, no safety for him there. Bocchus was a selfish man, and willing to listen to any plan which might bring him wealth or power. He lost one great battle, in which Sylla distinguished himself particularly, and then he began to think that it would be wise to make peace for himself. He delayed however for some time, being doubtful what to do, for Sylla, who was sent to settle the terms of peace, declared he would not consent to it, unless Jugurtha was delivered up; whilst Jugurtha, at the very same time, endeavored to persuade Bocchus to seize Sylla. Bocchus decided at last upon siding with the Romans, and after having told Jugurtha that if he would meet him at a certain place, Sylla should be given into his hands, he

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treacherously caused him to be surrounded by the Romans and made a prisoner.

8. Marius returned to Rome as a conqueror, and was honored with a splendid triumph. Great treasures of gold and silver were displayed which he had taken in the war, and the people gazed upon him, and wondered and admired, as he passed in his chariot through the streets; but the most glorious, yet the saddest prize of all, was the unfortunate king of Numidia, who was led in chains before his conqueror, dressed in his royal robes, and accompanied by his two sons. When the triumph was over, Jugurtha was stripped of his kingly dress, and the ornaments in his ears were snatched from him so eagerly that his flesh was torn in the cruel haste. He was then thrust into the dark, cold dungeon of the state prison; and after being kept for several days without food, he died.

9. Jugurtha had murdered Hiempsal and Adherbal, and he deserved no better fate; but it is difficult, if not impossible, to think of a king ending his life in such a dreadful manner, without feeling pity for him.

CHAPTER XXIX.

INVASION OF THE CIMBRI.

MARIUS DEFEATS THEM, B. C. 101.

B. C. 101. 1. The war with Jugurtha was no sooner ended than Marius was called upon to show his skill and bravery in defending his own country. We have seen how the Romans extended their dominions, and made themselves lords over all the civilized nations near them; but notwith-

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standing their great power, they were themselves in danger from enemies whom they scarcely knew, and whom, if they had known, they would probably have despised.

2. Many years before, the Gauls, as we have heard, had invaded Italy, and even taken possession of Rome; but the time was long past, and the Romans since then had grown bolder and more powerful. Some of the Gauls were their allies, and whenever there were wars and insurrections amongst them, they were sure to be quickly subdued. Probably the Romans began now to look upon themselves as the masters of the world. But their notions of the world were very unlike ours. They did not even know there was such a continent as America, and they had but a very indistinct idea of the people who lived in the north of Europe and in Asia. The inhabitants of these last-named countries were fierce and warlike tribes, who cared nothing for the arts and luxuries upon which the Romans prided themselves, and were therefore considered barbarians; yet it was ordered by God that these barbarians should in the end overthrow the vast Roman Empire, and become as much celebrated themselves for elegance and refinement as the people whom they conquered.

3. When we first hear of these tribes it seems as if they were all alike, and there could be no interest in distinguishing them from each other. But this is not really the case. The difference is actually seen and felt to this day amongst persons whom we meet and live with, and it is especially to be discovered in language. For instance, we hear constantly of a Scotch accent, but we do not often think why, when persons speak the same words, they should not pronounce them alike. It does not enter our heads that the difference arises from the fact, that hundreds of years ago England and Scotland were overrun by

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different tribes, who, when they talked, could not understand each other; and that the difference has come down from father to son till it has reached us, so that, although the descendants of the tribes who settled in Scotland speak English, they pronounce it, as French or Italian persons might do, with a foreign accent.

4. The barbarians, who in the time of Marius invaded Gaul and threatened to invade Italy, were the Cimbri. They came, it is said, from Asia and the eastern parts of Europe, and appeared in Gaul before the war with Jugurtha was ended. The Romans sent armies to aid the Gauls in defending themselves, but they were defeated; and when they afterwards drew near to the Alps and seemed prepared to cross into Italy, the Romans grew so alarmed that they ordered Marius, who had been chosen consul five times since he first offered himself, to assist in repelling them.

5. The Cimbri were at that time joined by another tribe, the Teutones; but only the Cimbri crossed the Alps. Marius defeated the Teutones first in Gaul, and then he brought his army back to Italy to attack the Cimbri. The Cimbri, who had not heard of the defeat of the Teutones, sent ambassadors to Marius, asking him to give themselves and their allies land on which they might settle, and threatening war if they were refused. "You ask land for your allies, the Teutones," answered Marius; "I have given them some already. Their bodies are now mouldering in the fields, and their bones are serving as fences for vineyards." After this haughty answer both armies prepared for a battle, which was fought on the 30th of June, B. C. 101. The Cimbri attacked the Romans with fury; but the heat of the weather, which they were not accustomed to, made them faint and weak, and they were easily overcome. They

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had also tied themselves together with cords, thinking they should support each other better in consequence; but this only gave the Romans greater power over them. Thousands of them were killed, and thousands more taken prisoners and sold for slaves. Nearly the whole tribe, in fact, was destroyed, and the Romans were for the time freed from a great calamity. Marius was now a greater person than ever. He was allowed a splendid triumph, and was chosen consul for the sixth time.

6. At this period there was, what is called, a servile war, that is, an insurrection of slaves, in Sicily. These slaves were in a wretched condition, and some of them being set free, all the others wished to be free likewise. They rebelled and made two of their number kings, and kept up a war for four years; but they were subdued at last, though not till a million of them had perished. It is said that one thousand of the number gave themselves up to the Roman general, who was sent against them, on condition that their lives should be spared. The promise was given, and yet this same man sent them afterwards to Rome to fight with wild beasts in the public shows and entertainments. The poor slaves killed each other to avoid such a shocking fate.

CHAPTER XXX.

THE SOCIAL, OR MARSIC WAR,

BROKE OUT B. C. 90.

B. C. 90. 1. THE events which happened in Italy after the invasion of the barbarians, brought worse consequences than any foreign wars. They were caused by disputes between the citizens of Rome

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and the states of Italy, who were subject to Rome; and by the selfishness and ambition of particular persons, who thought much more of their own interests than of the good of their country. There had always been a distinction between the citizens of Rome and the inhabitants of the rest of Italy. The citizens of Rome had particular privileges; amongst other things they were allowed to vote for the consuls, and so had some power in the government, and whenever the Roman senate wished to show favor to a city which they had conquered, they used to give the inhabitants what was called the franchise; that is, the same advantages as those persons possessed who were Romans by birth. There is a reference to this difference between the Roman citizens and other Roman subjects in the New Testament. St. Paul, we are told, being about to be scourged, informed the centurion who guarded him, that he was a Roman, meaning a Roman citizen. The centurion was then afraid to punish him, and went and told the chief captain, saying, "Take heed what thou doest, for this man is a Roman." The chief captain immediately inquired of St. Paul whether it was really so, and said, that he himself had obtained the privilege by paying a great sum. St. Paul replied, "But I was free-born," or born a citizen; and he was in consequence saved from punishment. We see from this that it was considered a great advantage to be a Roman citizen.

2. The Italian states were naturally enough very anxious to have the same privileges as their fellow-countrymen at Rome, and tried many times to force the senate to give them what they considered their right. There were great differences of opinion in Rome upon this subject. Marius was in favor of the franchise being given, for he generally sided with any party who were against the senators; but he did not really care for any one but himself. His hatred of

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Sylla increased every year, and as Sylla was a friend to the rich and great, Marius allied himself with the lower classes, and endeavored to make himself popular amongst them. At one time he joined himself with persons whose conduct was so disgraceful, that he was at last obliged to turn against them, and even fight against them. If he had not done so his fellow-citizens would have turned against him. There was one honorable person in Rome, who openly opposed Marius—and that was Metellus, the general, who had been with him in Africa. When Marius proposed a law which he said was to benefit the people, but which Metellus saw would give them a great deal more power than was good and right, he boldly refused to vote for it; and when his friends told him that evil would happen to him if he did not, he answered, that to do well when no danger attended it was common, but to do well in the midst of dangers was the part of a truly good and honest man.

3. Marius contrived that Metellus should go into exile as a punishment for this refusal; but he was afterwards recalled, and there was great joy at his return, for every one respected him. All the chief persons in Rome went to receive him, and his house was crowded with persons who came to congratulate him. Marius did not stay long in Rome to see the triumph of Metellus; he left Italy about this period, and travelled into Asia, where he stayed at the court of Mithridates, king of Pontus, in Asia Minor, who was inclined to be an enemy of the Romans. Perhaps that was the reason which induced Marius to go there, when he was angry with his fellow-countrymen; but he did not please Mithridates, who was a proud, imprudent, and bad man. He was too rough in his manner, and too plain in his speech, and offended the king by advising him either to try and make himself more powerful than the Romans, or else

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quietly to submit to them. Mithridates said nothing at the time in reply, but he soon afterwards dismissed his visiter with presents, and Marius then went back to Italy and lived at Rome like a private person; but he had no friends, for his roughness and his pride together made every one dislike him.

4. A few years after this the question about giving the franchise to the Italian states was brought forward again very eagerly. There was a general discontent throughout the whole of Italy, and the greater number of the states united themselves together with the resolution to fight until they had gained their object, or else to raze the city of Rome to the ground, and form a new republic.

5. This war is called the Social, or Marsic war; the Marsians, inhabitants of one of the small but proud states, being those who took the chief part in it. It first broke out in the year B. C. 90, and lasted for more than two years. Great misery was brought upon all concerned in it, for no less than 300,000 persons are said to have been killed in it, and many rich and prosperous cities were ruined; but in the end the Italian states gained their object. One state after another proposed to make peace upon condition of receiving the franchise, and the Romans, being anxious to bring the war to an end, were induced to consent.

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CHAPTER XXXI.

CIVIL WAR BETWEEN MARIUS AND SYLLA.

MARIUS OUTLAWED, B. C. 88.

B. C. 88. 1. The hatred which Marius and Sylla felt for each other broke out openly after the social war was ended. Marius was an old man now, for he was seventy years of age; but his harsh, envious disposition was not at all softened. He thought himself forgotten, because great respect was paid to Sylla, who had shown much courage and wisdom in the last war; and he was resolved to take the first opportunity of humbling him. This opportunity soon came. A war broke out with Mithridates, king of Pontus, who had offended the Romans by interfering in some affairs which they thought he had no right to meddle with; and also by offering to assist the Greeks in freeing themselves from the power of the Romans. Sylla was fixed upon as the general to conduct the war; but at the time the appointment was made, he was engaged in subduing one of the Italian states which was still discontented about the franchise; and Marius cunningly contrived, during his absence, to have a new election, and to be chosen himself instead. This was acting treacherously and unjustly, and when Sylla heard that the command was taken from him, he was exceedingly angry. He set out at once for Rome, and six of his legions or regiments of soldiers, as we should call them, followed him.

2. The gates of the city were shut; but he soon broke them down, and entered with his army. The inhabitants were much frightened at his approach, and many of them mounted upon the roofs of their

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houses, and threw down showers of stones upon him and his soldiers; but Sylla placed himself at the head of his troops, and taking a torch in his hand, threatened to set fire to the houses if they did not immediately leave off. This stopped them, and they allowed him to advance as far as the forum.

3. In the mean time Marius had left the city; he could not oppose such an army, and he knew that he should risk his life if he were to stay. Sylla caused him to be accused as a traitor to his country, together with his son, and many of his friends and followers; and offered a great reward to whoever would seize and put them to death. Marius was therefore obliged to keep himself carefully concealed, till he could find some way of escape. These events took place in the year B. C. 88.

4. For a short time Marius remained hidden in a house near Rome, with his son and a few followers; but as they were in want of food, his son left him, after a little while, to go in search of some; and before he came back, Marius began to be so much alarmed, lest he should be discovered, that he went away from his hiding-place, with his friends, and wandered about till they arrived at the seacoast, where they found two small vessels ready to sail. As a troop of horsemen were just behind them, they jumped into the sea to reach the ships, and in this way were separated; Marius being taken up by one ship, and his friends by the other. Young Marius, in the mean time, was in great danger; for he was very nearly discovered by some of Sylla's soldiers, and was only saved by the help of a slave, who was with him, and who put him into a cart, loaded with beans, and covered him up, and then drove the cart past the soldiers, and through the streets of Rome, till young Marius reached his own house, where his wife concealed him. When he knew that his father

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was gone, he managed to get on board a ship bound for Africa, and after a calm voyage landed there safely.

5. Marius himself was not as fortunate as his son. The sea was very stormy, and he suffered a great deal from fatigue and illness. The sailors kept along the coast of Italy, and Marius being quite tired out, they advised him to land and rest a little, till the wind should be more favorable. He accordingly took their advice, and laid down to sleep; but when he awoke he found himself alone. The vessel had sailed, and he was left to his fate. He was now much more unhappy than before; his spirits entirely failed, and he roamed about among swamps and marshes, till he met with an old man who took compassion upon him, and carried him to a hut, where he said he might easily hide himself. Marius knew that the part of the country in which he then was belonged to one of his greatest enemies, and this made him the more anxious not to be discovered. He hoped to have been safe in the hut, but he soon heard the voices of soldiers, and the trampling of horses near it, and then he left the hut, and plunged up to his neck in a muddy swamp, where he was at length found. The soldiers dragged him out, by tying a cord round his neck, and led him to the town of Minturnæ to be executed. The magistrates threw him into prison, and a slave was sent to kill him. It was then nearly dark, but the flaming eyes of the gaunt, fierce old man, seemed to glare upon the slave as he entered the cell where he was confined. With a terrible voice, Marius exclaimed, "Darest thou kill Caius Marius?" The slave dropped his sword in the greatest fear, and rushed away, saying, "I cannot kill Caius Marius."

6. The magistrates now began to repent of what they were going to do, for they remembered many things by which Marius had been of use to his

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country, and instead of doing him any harm, they took care of him, and assisted him, and in the end put him on board a vessel which was about to sail for Africa. He landed near Carthage, in the bay: the once beautiful city lay before him in ruins. Marius seated himself upon a broken column, and we may well believe that most sad thoughts passed through his mind; for the desolate city was the image of his own fate. Like him it had fallen, never, as it seemed, to rise again. Marius was a wicked man, and had nothing to cheer him when he looked back upon his evil life; but even if he had been good, he must still then have been wretched, for he had little hope left in this world, and had never been taught to look for happiness in another.

7. Whilst resting amongst the ruins, a messenger arrived from the governor of the province to warn him that it was against the laws of the Roman senate for him to remain there. Marius looked at the man sternly, and replied, "Go, tell your master that you have seen the exiled Marius sitting amongst the ruins of Carthage." The governor was probably touched with pity by the comparison which Marius thus made between his own misfortunes and the ruins of the great city, and he was suffered to remain there a little longer. His son, who had all this time been kept as a sort of prisoner by the king of Numidia, managed to escape and join him, and soon afterwards both of them, thinking it safer to leave Africa, fled to a little island near the coast, where they remained, waiting from day to day in the hope of hearing news which might give them a prospect of returning to Rome.

8. In the meanwhile there had been great changes at Rome, and new persons had started up to create disturbances. Sylla had departed to make war against Mithridates, in Greece, but he was scarcely

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gone before disputes arose between the two consuls, who were left to govern the state; and one of them, —Cinna, whom Sylla thought was his friend, declared war against the other, and sent for Marius to join him. Marius was of course most willing to do so. He collected together about five thousand desperate men, and united himself with Cinna's army, and then all marched to Rome. One really good, honorable man joined them—Sertorius, who had fought in the wars in Spain and against the Cimbri, and was much respected for his courage and high principles. He was not a friend to Marius, but supported him because he disapproved of the conduct of the senators, and of the persons who were then chief in Rome. The city was well defended, but the inhabitants began at last to suffer from famine, and the senators sent to Marius and Cinna to propose peace.

9. Whilst Cinna and the ambassadors were settling the terms, Marius stood by without speaking, dressed in very old clothes, with his hair and beard long and rough, and looking dreadfully stern and ferocious; and when the agreement for peace was made, and the whole army set out for the city, Marius stopped at the gate. They begged him to go forward, but he said scornfully, that he was a banished man, and the law against him must be done away with before he could enter. His impatience, however, would not suffer him really to wait; and shortly afterwards he rushed in, followed by his savage guards. Orders were given to these wretches to kill every person whose greeting Marius did not return. A most shocking massacre took place in consequence. Numbers of persons came up to speak to Marius, and were killed before his eyes. The consul, who had opposed Cinna, was murdered as he sat in his ivory chair of office, named a curule chair,

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where, on other occasions, he would have been supposed quite safe from harm. Marius seemed determined not to spare any one, and the cruelty and wickedness of his guards exceeded all belief, and at last came to such a pitch, that Sertorius and Cinna could endure it no longer. They agreed together to destroy them; and one night, when the guards were all asleep, they sent a body of soldiers, who killed them every one.

10. Sylla was not forgotten in the dreadful revenge of Marius. His house was seized and his property taken away, and he was declared an enemy to his country. Cinna was now restored to the consulship, and Marius was appointed to be consul also for the seventh time. He had always believed that this would be the case, because of an omen which had happened when he was a little child. An eagle with seven young ones fell into his lap, and this was supposed to mean that he should be the chief person in the state seven times; but no worldly honors could bring happiness to a man burdened with so many crimes, and knowing that enemies surrounded him on all sides. Letters arrived from Sylla, giving a list of his victories, and ending with these words:—"For these and other services, conscript fathers, you have rewarded me by setting a price upon my head; my wife and children are forced to abandon their country,—my house is razed,—my property is taken away. You may expect to see me shortly at the gates of Rome, with my victorious armies, to take vengeance for the injuries I have received."

11. These letters were like the prophecy of death to Marius. He knew that his life would be the first sacrificed if Sylla were to return, and horrible fancies troubled him. Voices seemed to sound in his ears, as he lay awake upon his bed at night, telling him

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that the den even of an absent lion ought to be dreaded. In his anguish he tried to distract his thoughts by excessive drinking, and a dreadful disease followed in consequence.

12. Seventeen days after having been chosen consul the seventh time, Marius died a madman.

13. There is no need to remark upon his fate. Even in this world, and amongst a nation of heathens, the judgments of God are clearly to be seen.

CHAPTER XXXII.

SYLLA,

APPOINTED PERPETUAL DICTATOR, B. C. 82.

B. C. 82. 1. When Marius was dead, Cinna was the master of Italy, but he was as much afraid of Sylla's power as Marius had been; for he knew that if Sylla were to return with his army, all those who had supported Marius would be severely punished. He persuaded the senate to appoint another general to command the armies in Asia, instead of Sylla; but this only brought on the evil of which he was afraid. Sylla had been successful in all his efforts against Mithridates, and had compelled him to make peace; and many provinces in Asia were now entirely subject to the Romans, in consequence of his skill and courage; he was determined, therefore, not to yield his command to any one, and instead of submitting to Fimbria, the new general, he brought an army against him. There was no cause, however, for a battle. The Romans were fond of Sylla, and proud of serving under him, and Fimbria's soldiers

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left him of their own accord, and went over to Sylla. Thus the very means which were used to destroy his power only made it greater, and he now had nothing else to do, but to settle all his affairs in Asia, and return to Italy to take vengeance upon his enemies.

2. All this time Sylla had appeared to be more careful of the interests of his country than of his own. He was cruel, indeed, to the states which rebelled against the Roman power, and made the people pay enormous sums of money; but still these persons were the enemies of Rome, and he might have excused himself by saying that it was his duty to punish them. But now we shall see him in his true character,—selfish and bloodthirsty as Marius, though more polite and refined in his manners.

3. Before Sylla arrived in Italy, one of his chief enemies was taken out of his way. Cinna was murdered by his own soldiers, but young Marius was left with several others, and their armies were very much larger than his own; so much so, indeed, that Sylla might have had reason to be afraid, if his soldiers had not been so well trained and so much attached to him. One person, however, joined him, who was a great help to him,—Cneius Pompey, afterwards called Pompey the Great. He was then only twenty-three years of age, but had already distinguished himself very much in defending Rome against Marius.

4. Pompey had great difficulty in joining Sylla; many efforts were made to stop him; and Sylla was so delighted with his assistance, and with the account of his exploits, that he gave him the title of "imperator," which had never before been granted to such a young person. As Sylla drew near to Italy, great preparations were made against him, but the person who could best have opposed him was

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absent. This was Sertorius, who was then in Spain. Young Marius and his friends were not clever enough to withstand a man like Sylla; and their whole party had made themselves hated by their cruelty, so that numbers of persons joined Sylla, hoping that if he were to conquer, the country would be in a better state.

5. Nearly two years passed from the time that Sylla first disobeyed the orders of the senate, by refusing to give up his command, till he appeared in the neighborhood of Rome. He was obliged to travel a great distance, and his enemies constantly endeavored to stop his march; but he was always victorious and advanced onwards, gaining strength every day.

6. The party of Marius seemed to increase in cruelty as the danger became greater. They ordered that all the persons in Rome who were supposed to favor Sylla should be killed, and numbers of the highest rank were murdered in consequence. This made Sylla the more anxious to take the chief power into his own hands, and he hastened on till he came quite close to the city. Here he met with great resistance from a Samnite army which was friendly to the Marian party. They fought against him in the most brave manner; but Sylla was successful as usual, though his troops were nearly worn out with fatigue.

7. The general of the Samnites killed himself in despair when he saw that the battle was lost, and his soldiers fled. Sylla took eight thousand prisoners, and as soon as he had obtained possession of the city, ordered them to be shut up in prison. He then summoned a meeting of the senators, and when they were assembled, addressed them in a long speech. All listened attentively, but their attention was soon drawn aside by fearful sounds which arose near them.

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Cries and groans of agony told that some dreadful deed was being performed. Sylla alone was quiet and unconcerned. "Attend," he exclaimed, speaking to the senators, "to what I am saying, and give yourselves no trouble about what is going on elsewhere. I have only ordered some offenders to be chastised." The eight thousand Samnites were at that very moment being murdered in cold blood!

8. This was only the beginning of his cruelty, and he did not attempt to conceal it. "I will not spare one," he said, "who has borne arms against me; all shall perish." He kept his threat most exactly. Every day fresh offenders were doomed to death. Some of them were really his enemies, others were only called guilty because they had endeavored to save the lives of the friends they loved. Catiline, a man of infamous character, assisted Sylla. He had some time before killed his brother, and now he begged that the deed might be made lawful, by his brother's name being placed in the list of those who were sentenced by Sylla himself.

9. The anxiety which these dreadful cruelties caused, at length became quite intolerable; and a young man, Caius Metellus, dared one day to stand up in the senate and inquire when Sylla meant to put a stop to them. "We do not," he said, "intercede for such as you have resolved to destroy; but only ask you to free those from uneasiness who may be allowed to live." Sylla replied that he did not know yet whom he should save. "Then," continued Metellus, "publish the list of those who are to die." The request was complied with immediately. Eighty persons, most of them of high rank, were put into the list; or as it is called, proscribed. The next day 220 were added to the number—the day after 220 more; and after 9000 persons had been murdered, Sylla assembled the people, and told them that he

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had proscribed as many as he could think of, and as for those he had forgotten, they should be proscribed too as soon as he could call them to his memory.

10. To increase the misery which these horrible calamities caused, Sylla took possession of the property of the unhappy people whom he killed, and passed a law, which long continued in force, that none of the descendants of the proscribed should hold any office in the state.

11. It seems marvellous that one man should thus have tyrannized over a whole city, yet so it was; and Sylla not only compelled the Romans to submit to his cruelty, but forced them to make him perpetual dictator, in order that he might reform the laws and government. This was one of the few duties which he seemed inclined to perform rightly. The laws made by his order were many of them wise and useful.

12. Sylla was appointed dictator in the year B. C. 82, and held the office for three years. Then suddenly he determined to give it up. He told the people of his resolution when he had assembled them at a great meeting, and at the same time he offered to give an account of all that he had done; but no one dared ask him to do so. He was allowed to leave the place of assembly free and without complaint; and from that period he retired to a beautiful country-house where he spent his days in luxury, and employed himself in writing the history of his own life in Greek. But the vengeance of God overtook him, though he was saved from the vengeance of his fellow-creatures. He was attacked by a loathsome disease, and vermin swarmed over his body. It was a complaint for which there was no cure, and which must have rendered him an object of intolerable disgust to every one who approached him. Yet even in this dreadful condition Sylla's ferocious temper

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showed itself. He was informed that a man refused to settle some accounts, hoping that Sylla would soon die, and that he should then not be obliged to do so. Sylla sent for him, and ordered his slaves to strangle him in his presence. The death of this man brought on his own—the straining of his voice in his extreme anger caused some internal injury, and he died that same night in agony.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

SERTORIUS,

MURDERED B. C. 72.

B. C. 72. 1. We must now go back to what happened at Rome after Sylla gave up the dictatorship.

2. There were then two parties in the state, headed by the two consuls, Lepidus and Catulus. Lepidus desired to undo every thing which Sylla had done, and to call back the persons whom he had exiled; whilst Catulus desired to keep all in the same condition in which Sylla had left it. Pompey, afterwards called the Great, took the part of Catulus; and as he was one of the most distinguished persons in Rome, whichever side he supported was the most likely to be uppermost. Pompey was not a cruel man like Marius and Sylla, at times he showed very high qualities; but he was not thoroughly sincere—his friends could not always trust to his word, and his ambition caused him to do many wrong things.

3. Open war broke out after a little while between the two consuls; but Catulus, being assisted by Pompey, was victorious, and Lepidus was obliged to flee to Sardinia, where he soon after died. There

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was, however, no hope of peace even then, for a war was going on in Spain, against Sertorius, who had never yielded to Sylla. Sertorius was much liked by the Spaniards, who trusted and respected him. His wish was to make the Romans and Spaniards one people; and he appointed senators, as there were at Rome, half of whom were Spaniards and half Romans; he also established a school where the young men were to be educated, and in fact did every thing in his power to improve the people. The Spaniards thought he was particularly blessed by the gods, because he was always accompanied by a white fawn, which they supposed was sent him from heaven as a sign of divine approbation. This strong feeling in his favor made Sertorius very powerful, and he was able to defend himself for a long time against all who were sent to Spain to oppose him. It was not because he favored Marius himself, that he did not yield to Sylla, but because he considered Sylla a tyrant who would only oppress the people, and that the party of Marius cared more for the true good of their country.

4. Pompey's great ambition was to conquer Sertorius, and when Lepidus was defeated he determined to go himself with an army into Spain. It was very difficult to carry on a war in that mountainous country, especially against a person like Sertorius, who knew exactly where to go, and how to place his men in the best position; and, as Pompey knew this, he set a price upon his head; that is, he offered a sum of money to any person who would kill him. Sertorius would have submitted on one condition—that of being allowed to go back to Rome, for he had a mother living there whom he loved more than any one else in the world, and whom he longed to see again; but a short time after he made this proposal to the senate his mother died, and then he

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had no reason for not continuing the war as before. It is said that when he heard of his mother's death he himself almost died of grief, and lay seven days on the ground without taking an interest in any thing which was going on. His friends, however, persuaded him to rouse himself again, and by degrees he began to be more cheerful and hopeful, especially as he had a hope of assistance from Mithridates, king of Pontus.

5. Mithridates, we know, had always been an enemy to the Romans. Whilst Sylla was dictator, he had begun a second war against them, which, however, did not last very long; but now he thought, that if he could have the assistance of Sertorius, he really might take his revenge for all the injuries he had received. Sertorius agreed to be his ally, upon condition that Mithridates would not attempt to conquer any part of the Roman dominions in Asia, but only to retake that which was his own; and, this being agreed upon, Mithridates carried on a war against the Romans in Asia, whilst Sertorius fought in Spain, and formed a plan for invading Italy. Most unhappily, about two years afterwards, Sertorius began to suspect that the Spaniards were not as faithful to him as they had been, and that they intended to go over to his enemies; and this induced him to commit a most cruel action, which must always be a blot upon his memory. He ordered all the young men who were educated in his college to be put to death. Perhaps he excused himself by saying that their friends were traitors; but nothing can really excuse him. He lost the confidence of the Spaniards from that time, and even the Romans became less attached to him; and not long afterwards, Perperna, one of his generals, who was jealous of his fame, formed a plot against him, and having invited him to a banquet, treacherously fell upon

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him whilst he was sitting at table, and murdered him in the year B. C. 72.

6. The Spaniards and the Romans, who sided with Sertorius, lost every thing when he died; for Perperna, who took the command of the army after him, was a base and cowardly, as well as a cruel man, and only cared for his own safety. He was defeated by Pompey, and taken prisoner, and when he thought that he should be sentenced to die, he offered to give Pompey all the letters he had found belonging to Sertorius, on condition of his life being spared. These letters would have been of great consequence to Pompey, as they would have shown him who, amongst the chief of his fellow-citizens at Rome, were the friends of Sertorius; but he was far too high-minded to take advantage of such meanness, and burnt the letters without looking at them, and ordered Perperna instantly to be executed.

7. The war in Spain was then ended.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

SERVILE WAR UNDER SPARTACUS, ENDED BY CRASSUS AND POMPEY, B. C. 71.

B. C. 71. 1. After conquering Sertorius and Perperna, Pompey was called upon to subdue a very different enemy, an army of rebellious gladiators and slaves.

2. Gladiators, as we have heard before, were persons forced to fight with each other, as a public show to amuse the people. They were generally prisoners taken in war, and bought by masters who

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trained them in schools, and then made them exhibit at the public games. These amusements were cruel and disgraceful, and one of the chief causes of the great wickedness of the Romans. They became hard-hearted in consequence, and found delight in the sufferings of their fellow-creatures. When a gladiator was vanquished, he raised his finger to ask for pity, and if the spectators approved of his bravery, they turned down their thumbs, and he was spared; but if they turned them up, the unfortunate man was killed. Sometimes the gladiators were bound by an oath to their master to fight till they died. They were rewarded by a crown of palm leaves, or by money; and now and then they were allowed not to fight any more.

3. The insurrection which Pompey was obliged to subdue began at Capua, where there was a school of these gladiators, who were kept very strictly. Seventy of them escaped from their masters, put themselves under the command of one of their companions, named Spartacus, a very clever, brave man, and established themselves upon a high mountain, where they were well able to defend themselves. They then invited as many other gladiators and slaves to join them as chose to do so, and in a short time they had collected a really large army, as many as ten thousand in number. When the insurrection had increased to such a great pitch, the Roman senate began to be alarmed. The consuls were sent against them, but they were defeated; and Spartacus and his slaves marched through the country, their numbers increasing as they went on, plundering and destroying, and taking revenge for the cruelties which had been shown them, till they came to the foot of the Alps. The senators then fixed upon another general to oppose them—Crassus, who had been one of Sylla's favorite officers. Crassus was a man more

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famous for his immense riches than for being particularly clever or having much energy; Spartacus on the contrary had great talent and spirit; and the senate knew this, and resolved, as the war in Spain was at that time ended, to give the command of their armies, as soon as they possibly could, to Pompey.

4. Before, however, they could do so, Crassus had gained a great victory over the gladiators. Spartacus had a foreboding before this battle began that he should lose it; and he ordered his favorite horse to be brought to him, and slew it, saying, "If I should win this day, I shall have a great many better horses; if I lose it, I shall have no need of it." The battle lasted long. Spartacus was wounded in the leg, yet still he fought on his knees, holding his sword and buckler. At last he fell lifeless upon the bodies of those whom he had slain. Forty thousand of his men were killed on the spot. The rest fled, but before they could reach a place of safety they were met by Pompey, who was coming to take the command from Crassus. He cut them all to pieces, and afterwards sent this boasting message to the senate: "Crassus has overcome the gladiators in a pitched battle, but I have plucked up the war by the roots." This battle was fought in the year B. C. 71.

5. Crassus was very nearly becoming the enemy of Pompey for life in consequence of this boast; but he was pacified by Pompey's begging that he might be made consul. Still they were not heartily friends, and each tried to gain the love and admiration of the people for himself. Pompey endeavored to win their favor by giving them power; and Crassus, who was immensely rich, by feasting them. It is said that he entertained them in public at ten thousand tables, and distributed corn enough amongst the poor to maintain their families for months. Pompey, however, had much the better chance of the two, for

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being famed as a general, he soon had another opportunity of becoming famous in a war against the pirates who infested the Mediterranean Sea.

6. These pirates were not common sea-robbers, as their name seems to mean; many of them were persons who had once been well off, but who had been ruined from different causes. Having lost every thing, they lived by plunder, and as their numbers increased they became so powerful that even kings asked for their assistance in their wars. They had at one time a thousand galleys or light vessels in their service, and in these they sailed about the coast, landing wherever they wished, and taking whatever they chose. Sometimes they carried off prisoners; and if any of them happened to be Romans, they would pretend to treat them very respectfully, and then, leading them to the side of the vessels, would push them overboard, saying, they would not by any means keep a freeborn Roman a prisoner.

7. But what was almost worse than any thing, these pirates robbed the vessels in which provisions were carried backwards and forwards; and as the Romans had their corn from Sicily, they were in danger of famine in consequence. It was the fear of this which made them determine at last to set themselves in earnest to conquer the pirates; and Pompey, being the first general in the state, was appointed to the command. We must remember that in former times, the same persons constantly commanded both by land and sea.

8. It is generally agreed, that Pompey's conduct on this occasion is very deserving of praise. He had enormous power given him, for he was permitted to rule over all the coasts of the Mediterranean, and several miles inland; he was also allowed to raise as many seamen and soldiers as he thought fit, and to take as much money as he liked out of the public

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treasury, and this authority was to last for three years. Of course, if he had wished it, he might easily at that time have endeavored to make himself lord over all the Roman dominions; instead of which he did his duty so thoroughly, that in four months' time the whole of the pirate ships were taken or sunk, all the men belonging to them were either killed or made prisoners, or obliged to submit to the Romans, and the coasts of the Mediterranean were entirely freed from these terrible robbers. Many of the pirates were sent by Pompey to settle in different places, or, as it is called, to become colonists; and in this way they had a hope of again living respectably and honorably.

CHAPTER XXXV.

THIRD MITHRIDATIC WAR.

POMPEY APPOINTED TO CONDUCT IT, B. C. 66.

B. C. 66. 1. We must now go back to the history of the war with Mithridates, king of Pontus, which broke out, as we have heard, in the time of Sertorius. Lucullus, a man famous for his love of luxury and splendor, was employed for some time as the chief general, and managed the war so well that Mithridates was obliged to flee from his dominions, and take refuge with his son-in-law Tigranes, king of Armenia.

2. The Romans tried to persuade Tigranes to give up Mithridates to them, but this he would not consent to do; and being a very powerful prince, he was enabled to help his father-in-law for some time. Before Lucullus could subdue both these monarchs he was called back to Rome, and a consul was sent

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to take his place, who was not at all equal to him. The Roman senate, therefore, soon made another change, and gave the whole command to Pompey. This command was not to be the same as was generally given to a general; it was to be as great as that which Pompey was allowed when he undertook to destroy the pirates.

3. Some persons objected to a law being passed in order to give Pompey such power, but two of the principal persons in the state were in favor of it, and so it was carried. These two persons were Julius Cæsar and Cicero. We shall hear much more about them by-and-by.

4. Pompey was sailing about near the coast of Asia, in the year B. C. 66, after completing the destruction of the pirates, when the news reached him of the great authority which had been given him. Though he had been longing for it in his heart, and inducing his friends to try and get it for him, he pretended not to like it, now that he had it. "What," he said, "will Rome burden me with a new war? must I never have any rest?"

5. He, however, did not think of refusing the command, but immediately prepared for an undertaking which he was resolved should bring him more fame than any of his other exploits. And so it did. He was successful from the very beginning. He forced Tigranes to submit to him, and took from him a great part of his possessions. He completely defeated Mithridates, and obliged him to flee to Colchis and the wild countries on the borders of the Euxine Sea, or, as it is now called, the Black Sea. He afterwards entered Syria, took the kingdom, and made Syria, with Phœnicia, a Roman province, and then advanced into Judea.

6. The state of Judea at that time is not told us in the Bible, but we know from other histories, that

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after Ezra and Nehemiah had rebuilt the temple and restored the government, the Jews were placed under the rule of their high-priests for many years, but were at the same time considered subject to the kings of Persia. They were also in constant danger from the nations near them, and were very often at war. We learn something of these wars from the books of the Maccabees, which describe how Judas Maccabeus and his brothers, the sons of one of the high-priests, defended themselves against the kings of Syria. One of the descendants of this family made himself king, and after this Judea was generally governed by kings until the time of our blessed Saviour.

7. It happened that at the period when Pompey invaded Syria, there were two princes of the family of the Maccabees contending for the crown. Their names were Hyrcanus and Aristobulus. Both of them applied to Pompey for assistance, but he chose to support Hyrcanus; and when Aristobulus took refuge in Jerusalem, Pompey resolved to besiege the city. The Jewish historian, Josephus, gives a long description of the siege. He speaks of the thickness of the city walls, and the depth of the valley around them, and tells us how careful the Jews were to continue their religious services even when their enemies were close at hand. But the city was taken at last, and Pompey and his conquering army entered it. It seems that Pompey had some feeling of respect for the beautiful temple; he refused to receive the money which was put aside for sacred purposes, and ordered the building to be cleansed, and sacrifices to be offered as before. But in one instance, he showed no reverence: he went into the Most Holy Place—the Sanctuary, which it was not lawful but for the high-priest to enter; and it has been remarked, that from that time the success which had followed him

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in every thing he undertook began to fail. Certainly his after-life showed that such glory as he had gained is in no way to be depended upon as lasting.

8. After settling Hyrcanus as high-priest, and making Judea subject to Rome, Pompey prepared to leave the country, carrying Aristobulus with him. On his way from Jerusalem to Petra in Arabia, he was overtaken by a party of soldiers, bringing him the news of the death of Mithridates, king of Pontus. It was a sad story, and one which might well have been a warning to Pompey of the vanity of human greatness. Mithridates, the great king, had killed himself in despair, at the wickedness and cruelty of his own son, Pharnaces, who had rebelled against him. The body of the unfortunate monarch was sent by Pharnaces to Pompey, who showed it to his soldiers, and then ordered it to be buried with great splendor; for he was too generous to exult over a fallen enemy.

9. As Pharnaces was willing to submit in all things to the Romans, there was now no longer any call for Pompey to remain in Asia, except in order to arrange the affairs of the different countries which had submitted to him; and accordingly he went back to Italy the next year. When he arrived at Rome all the people came out to meet him, and his triumph was the most splendid that had ever been seen. It lasted two days; and we are told that 324 prisoners of high rank marched before his chariot, amongst whom were Aristobulus, king of Judea, and a son of Tigranes, king of Armenia, besides several of the children of Mithridates. The treasures which he had taken were worth about three millions of money, besides immense sums which he paid to the government and gave to his soldiers. But what did him more honor than all the grandeur, was his conduct to his prisoners. Instead of putting them to death, or keeping them in

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prison, as it was usually the custom to do, he sent them all back to their own countries, except Aristobulus and young Tigranes.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

CATILINE'S CONSPIRACY.

DISCOVERED BY CICERO B. C. 63.

B. C. 63. 1. WHILST Pompey was gaining these great victories in Asia, the Romans had not been free from danger at home; for a plot was formed against the government, which, if it had succeeded, might have brought complete ruin upon the country. This plot is called Catiline's conspiracy. Catiline's name has been mentioned before. He was the person who assisted Sylla in his cruelties, and from this it is not difficult to imagine what his character was. He was very tall, and enormously strong in appearance. His disposition was bold and determined; and he was clever, avaricious, and extravagant. These last qualities were the cause of his engaging in the conspiracy; for he had brought himself into such great difficulties, and owed so much money, that he saw no prospect of freeing himself, except by upsetting the government and seizing upon whatever he could get. Several other nobles were in the same condition, and agreed with him to murder the senators, and then rule the country according to their own fancy. The plot was discovered in the year B. C. 63, by Cicero, the consul—a senator distinguished for talent and eloquence, or power of speaking, and for his great love of his country. His speeches in the senate were some of the most beauti-

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ful that were ever heard, and amongst them there is not one more celebrated than that which he made when he accused Catiline of conspiring against his country. His great fault was vanity, and his disposition was rather wavering; he did not always like to speak out boldly, and say which side of a question he took.

2. Cicero had long suspected Catiline of some evil design, but he was not certain what the plot really was till he was told it by a woman named Fulvia, who was a friend of one of the conspirators. When he had learned all the particulars, he assembled the senate, and declared to them, in the presence of Catiline, the great danger they were in. Catiline listened to what was said very quietly, and when Cicero had finished, stood up to defend himself; but he was interrupted by the senators, who, with one accord, burst forth into reproaches. Catiline, burning with rage, exclaimed, "Since you have provoked me to the utmost, I will not perish alone. Those who have sworn my ruin shall perish in the same destruction as myself." Thus saying, he left the assembly, and that night departed from Rome to put himself at the head of a rebel army.

3. Fresh proofs were now discovered of Catiline's guilt from letters which fell into Cicero's hands, and proved that he and his friends had endeavored to gain the assistance of the Gauls. Some of the principal conspirators who remained in Rome were immediately thrown into prison and condemned to death; and when the sentence was passed Cicero went to the prison, and in order to be sure that there could be no escape, caused them all to be strangled in his presence. This action was not against the Roman law, but it afterwards caused Cicero a great deal of trouble. The way in which he told the people that the conspirators were killed is a curious instance of

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the superstitious feeling which was common at that time. He cried out:—Vixerunt; "They have lived." He did not venture to say, "They are dead," because the words were thought to be an ill omen.

4. The rebellion, however, could not be at an end whilst Catiline was at the head of an army, and the senators without delay took measures to oppose him. It was Catiline's wish to lead his troops into Gaul, where he thought he should find help; but, before he could do this, the army of the senate came up with him, and a battle was fought, in which he was completely defeated. Catiline showed much bravery on this occasion; and when at last he saw that all hope was gone, he rode into the midst of his enemies and fell amongst heaps of the slain.

5. The remembrance of having defeated this terrible conspiracy was a satisfaction to Cicero all his life. The senators thanked him publicly, and he was called the deliverer of Rome and the father of his country. Perhaps we should honor him more if he had thought less of his own merit. When he gave up the consulship, instead of swearing, as was the usual custom, "I have kept the laws;" he swore, "I, alone, have preserved the Republic in safety." Cicero might have imagined, at that time, that nothing which could happen would ever make his fellow-countrymen forget what they owed him; but after events showed that no services can make us safe from ingratitude.

6. It was about two years from the discovery of Catiline's conspiracy that Pompey returned from Asia; and, after enjoying the triumph which has been spoken of, lived for some time as a private person. His ambition however was in truth as great as ever, and one source of continual mortification to him was to see that other persons in the state were rising into notice as well as himself. Julius Cæsar was his principal rival in the favor of the people; and, from

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his talents and general character, it appeared probable that he would be a very dangerous one. Cæsar is perhaps the most remarkable of all the great men whose names have been rendered famous in history. He was not only a most skilful general, but a learned man, a clever writer, an excellent public speaker, and a wise ruler. He had great energy, and was very persevering in all which he undertook; and his disposition was honorable and amiable. Many things indeed are told of him which we cannot approve; but, when we think of the manners of the times in which he lived, and of his utter ignorance of true religion, we must own that he is a person to be extremely admired.

7. The disagreement between Pompey and Cæsar did not show itself for some time. Cæsar was anxious to be a favorite with the people; and, as Pompey was much liked, it suited his purpose to be friendly with him. Crassus, also—so famous for his riches—joined with them, and the three together soon managed every thing according to their own will. They made an agreement to support each other under all circumstances, and from this close alliance they were called the triumvirate; and, in order to render the connection still firmer, Cæsar gave Pompey his daughter Julia for a wife.

8. About this time Cæsar was made consul; and, when his office was ended, he induced the senate to give him the government of the province of Gaul for five years—although the custom was that no general should rule a province for more than one year. Before setting off Cæsar offered to take Cicero with him as his legate, but the proposal was refused; for Cicero was just then afraid to leave Rome, as he well knew that he had an enemy in the city who was plotting his ruin. Clodius was the name of this man: he was a wicked unprincipled person, who hated Cicero

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because he had accused him of a great crime of which he had been guilty; and, in order to be revenged upon him, caused himself to be chosen a tribune, and then brought forward a law, declaring that any person who had put a Roman citizen to death without a regular trial, should be outlawed. This law, it was plainly seen, was framed entirely against Cicero, who had caused the Catiline conspirators to be executed before they were regularly tried; but though every effort was made by Cicero and his friends to prevent its being carried, it was still supported by so many persons, that Cicero saw himself to be in great danger, and at length was persuaded to leave the city before he could be actually condemned.

9. For sixteen months Cicero was an exile. This was a great trial to him, and he used to complain bitterly to his friends of the injustice and ingratitude which had been shown him, and which were certainly very trying, for besides being outlawed, his property was seized, and his houses were burnt down to satisfy the malice of Clodius. At the end of sixteen months the Romans began to see how madly and unjustly they had behaved. Petitions were offered to the senate, begging that Cicero might be recalled, and the request was granted. Cicero returned to Rome as if he had been a general, enjoying a triumph. The senate went out to meet him, and the people shouted for joy at beholding him. His property was restored and his houses were rebuilt at the expense of the state, and every mark of favor was shown him, as a proof that the senate repented having consented to the disgraceful attempts which had been made to ruin him.

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CHAPTER XXXVII.

CÆSAR'S WARS IN GAUL.

BEGUN B. C. 58.

B. C. 58. 1. The account of Cæsar's government in Gaul, and of the wars which he carried on with the different tribes, has been written by himself; so that we have a very correct history of all that went on. He had a hard task to subdue the country; but his wisdom and courage made him succeed at last, and gained him great honor at Rome, where every one admired and respected him. Only one person at all distrusted him,—Cato, the stern senator, who loved his country's freedom more than any glory, and foresaw that Cæsar's ambition might at some future time induce him to bring his own country into subjection, as he was now conquering her enemies.

2. Cæsar's government in Gaul was, as we know, to last for five years; but this did not satisfy him. He had set his heart upon invading Britain, the white cliffs of which he could just see from the coast of France. It was a country of which very little was known. The Phœnicians indeed had been accustomed to get tin from the mines in the west of the island, but no one had ventured to explore the interior. Its shores were rocky and difficult of approach, and all that Cæsar could learn of the manners and habits of the wild people who inhabited it, was from the Druids, or priests of the Gauls, who professed the same religion, and used the same ceremonies as the Druids of Britain. To a general like Cæsar, who was fond of adventures, and cared nothing for danger, it was a great temptation to be the

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first to subdue this distant island; but, in order to do so, it would be necessary still to continue his command in Gaul. This object he contrived to obtain by the help of his two allies, Pompey and Crassus, who were chosen consuls just in time to make the change in the law which was required.

3. These three men still continued to have every thing according to their own wishes. Cæsar loved glory and conquest, and therefore commanded in a foreign province; Pompey desired the favor of his fellow-citizens, and although he was made governor in Spain, sent a legate to govern for him, and remained at Rome trying to make himself friends, and watching all that was going on; and Crassus, whose only care was to be rich, went to rule over Syria, where he intended to extort immense sums of money from the nations subject to him.

4. We will follow him now to the end of his life, (for he was not suffered to live long after his arrival in Syria,) and see the end of his avarice.

5. Before leaving Rome he made a boast of the countries which he was going to conquer; yet these countries were at peace with Rome, and he had no excuse for making war upon them. One of the tribunes heard his vaunt, and warned him that he was going to commit a great crime. Crassus scorned him; and the tribune then solemnly cursed him, and prayed that if he kept to his intentions the gods might take vengeance upon him.

6. Crassus, however, cared nothing for religion, and pursued his own course. He declared war unjustly, and took large sums of money from the people, plundering the temple of Jerusalem of the very treasure which Pompey had refused to receive. But his punishment came at last. In a battle with the Parthians his army was defeated; and soon afterwards his young son was killed before his eyes, and he him-

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self, whilst trying to escape, being made prisoner, was slain. The Parthian soldiers cut off his head, and carried it to their king, who caused it to be filled with melted gold, exclaiming—"Sate thyself now with that metal of which in life thou wert so greedy."

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

CÆSAR'S CONQUEST OF BRITAIN.

FIRST INVASION, B. C. 55.

B. C. 55. 1. ALTHOUGH Cæsar was kept a long time in Gaul before he could entirely subdue the different warlike tribes, he never forgot his wish of invading Britain. Accordingly, as soon as he could make the necessary arrangements, he collected a number of vessels, and with a body of troops crossed the narrow channel between Calais and Deal, which is the shortest passage from France to England; or, as the countries were then called, from Gaul to Britain.

2. The natives rushed to the coast when they saw these invaders approaching their shores, determined to prevent them from landing. They were a wild, savage-looking people, clothed with the skins of animals, and having parts of their bodies painted blue: but Cæsar had long been accustomed to make war upon barbarians; and, though the Britons made a brave resistance, he at last succeeded in landing.

3. This first expedition, however, neither lasted very long nor proved very important; for, although some of the British tribes offered to submit to the Romans, it was so late in the year that Cæsar was afraid to remain and continue his conquest, and

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therefore went back to Gaul, satisfied with having been the first person who had ventured to attack the warlike hardy inhabitants of the distant island.

4. The next year he returned, landed at the same place, and then advanced into Kent, which was under the dominion of a chief named Cassivelaunus. The Britons in vain endeavored to stop him. He went on with his troops as far as what now is the county of Surrey, till he came to a place where the river Thames was not as deep as in other parts, and here he determined to cross it. The Britons drove stakes into the river to stop him, and from this the spot was afterwards called Cowey Stakes; but Cæsar crossed as he had intended, and was then able to take possession of the capital of Cassivelaunus, and to conquer parts of Essex and Middlesex, and by that time Cassivelaunus saw that it would be wise to beg for peace. Cæsar granted it, as he was obliged to return to Gaul. He made the Britons pay him tribute, and took back hostages with him, but he left no troops in the island; and, as might naturally have been expected, the Britons gave up their obedience as soon as they were freed from the presence of the Romans.

CHAPTER XXXIX.

CIVIL WAR BETWEEN POMPEY AND CÆSAR.

CÆSAR CROSSES THE RUBICON, B. C. 49.

B. C. 49. 1. Whilst Cæsar was thus adding to his fame by his conquests in foreign countries, Pompey was becoming more and more his enemy; for two ambitious persons are sure to quarrel

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with and hate each other, and unfortunately the only real bond of union between them was soon destroyed by the death of Julia, Pompey's wife and Cæsar's daughter. She was a very beautiful, amiable person, and Cæsar loved her dearly; and when Pompey afterwards married Cornelia, the daughter of Crassus, they had no longer any interest in common.

2. The state of Rome at this period was very disgraceful: Clodius, of whom we have heard before as the enemy of Cicero, and Milo, a very wealthy and powerful senator, were constantly disputing; and not only in words, but they had each a large number of followers who used to fight when they met. It happened at last, on the occasion of some great disturbance, that Clodius was killed. Persons said that Milo stabbed him; and, whether this was true or not, every one saw that it was necessary to do something to bring back order. It was proposed therefore that Pompey should be made consul alone, in order to give him greater power, and this office he kept for some time; after which his father-in-law was joined with him.

3. Pompey was now master in Rome; and the nobles, having an idea that he was more inclined to favor them than before, sided with him entirely. To show their dislike to Cæsar, they proposed that he should be recalled from Gaul, and some one else appointed in his place. Pompey however would not consent to this; for he did not choose yet to declare himself Cæsar's enemy openly. He had a law passed, to allow Cæsar to stand for the consulship, even whilst he was absent from Rome. But the proposal alarmed the senators: for they knew that if Cæsar was allowed to be consul, and still to keep the command of his soldiers, who had so long fought under him, he would in fact be like a king, as his commands

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were certain to be obeyed. Instead therefore of making him consul, an order was sent, after some delay, requiring him to disband his army by a particular day; and declaring that, if he refused, he should be considered a public enemy. Cæsar was then in what was called Cisalpine Gaul,—the country at the foot of the Alps, in the north of Italy. Transalpine Gaul was on the other side of the mountains. The news of all that was going on at Rome was brought him by three of his friends, who were tribunes, and had endeavored as much as possible to prevent any wrong being done him. Mark Antony was one of these friends; a person of bad character, but brave and clever, who afterwards followed Cæsar faithfully in all his difficulties.

4. Cæsar was not a person to be frightened by threats, he was quite resolved not to give up his command; and whilst he made his plans, and arranged with his friends what every one was to do, he was in appearance as quiet and unconcerned as ever. The very day after Mark Antony and his companions arrived he made a great feast, and entertained his guests with a show of gladiators; but, as the evening drew on, he excused himself to the party, and left them, begging them to remain till his return. A chariot was in readiness. Cæsar threw himself into it, drove to the spot where he had appointed some of his officers and soldiers to meet him, and then proceeded onwards, until he reached the banks of the little river Rubicon, which divided his province of Cisalpine Gaul from the rest of Italy, and which no general was permitted to pass with an army. Here he became silent and full of thought; one minute resolved to go forward with his army to Rome, and the next thinking it better to go back. "If I do not cross the river," he said, turning to one of his friends, "I am undone. If I do cross it,

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how many calamities shall I by this step bring upon Rome!" Again he paused and considered, and then exclaiming, "The die is cast," plunged into the river. It was a most important step, for the crossing of that little river brought a change upon the whole government of Rome.

5. Pompey and the senators were greatly alarmed when they heard that Cæsar was advancing with his army into Italy. Until that moment, Pompey had fully believed that Cæsar's troops were dissatisfied with him, and would forsake him on their arrival in Italy.

6. When Cicero advised him to prepare for his enemy, and asked with what forces he meant to oppose him, Pompey proudly answered, "If I do but stamp with my feet, an army will start out of the ground." Now, he was reproached with the vain boast, and there was no reply to give. His presence of mind seemed to have forsaken him, and hastily calling upon the senators and magistrates to follow him, he departed from Rome, and retired to Brundusium, a seaport on the southeastern side of Italy.

7. In the mean time Cæsar entered Rome in triumph, no one having authority to oppose him, for the magistrates had left the city. Cicero remained in the neighborhood, in his villa at Tusculum; and Cæsar went to visit him, hoping to bring him over to his side: but Cicero was not to be persuaded, either by arguments or entreaties. Cæsar's next object was to obtain money for carrying out his plans. He went to the treasury for this purpose and found it locked. A young tribune was bold enough to forbid its being opened. Cæsar laid his hand on his sword, and threatened to kill him, adding sternly—"This you know, young man, is harder for me to say than to do." The treasury was accordingly

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broken open, and as much money taken from it as was required.

CHAPTER XL.

CÆSAR ATTACKS POMPEY.

BATTLE OF PHARSALIA, B. C. 48.

B. C. 48. 1. As yet no drop of blood had been shed in the quarrel between Pompey and Cæsar; and this was a great triumph to Cæsar, who was not at all of a cruel disposition. But it was certain that such a state of things could not continue, and he therefore made considerable preparations for war. Pompey had left Brundusium and was gone to Greece; and whilst he and his friends were collecting allies and forces in Sicily, Africa, Egypt, and Asia, all which countries were favorable to him, Cæsar sent generals and officers to oppose him, and went himself to Spain. Spain was Pompey's province, as Gaul was Cæsar's; he was, therefore, more powerful there than in any other place: yet Cæsar's good-fortune followed him, and in forty days he had brought over the whole country to his side, and was able to return to Rome, and receive the honor of being made dictator and consul. The dictatorship he only held for eleven days, during which he passed several useful laws.

2. By this time Pompey had collected both men and money, and had a large fleet at his command. Many of the chief persons in the state were on his side: Cicero and Cato amongst the number. There was one, however, whom Cæsar regretted more than all the others,—Marcus Brutus, a stern, silent, but

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most honorable man, who had no real friendship for Pompey, but followed him entirely because he thought that his cause was the best for the country. Cæsar had a great regard for Brutus, and looked upon him almost as his son; yet this did not prevent Brutus from taking part against him. He was a man who gave up all personal affection for what he believed to be the cause of freedom.

3. Now that Cæsar was master in Spain, it was necessary for him to attack Pompey himself; and accordingly he sailed for Greece, where Pompey was, as soon as possible; but he had not ships sufficient to carry over his whole army, and was therefore obliged to leave some of his troops at Brundusium. Mark Antony remained with them, and the agreement was that they were to join Cæsar quickly. Several things happened to prevent this being done, and Cæsar became so impatient at the delay that he disguised himself in the dress of a slave, and one night went on board a fisherman's boat intending to cross the Adriatic Sea, and find out for himself why his troops were detained at Brundusium. The enemy's vessels were scattered about; but he had no thought of danger of any kind, and the little boat sailed from the shore in the middle of the night, and for some distance all went well. Suddenly a strong breeze sprang up, both the wind and the tide were contrary, and the master of the boat, despairing of crossing the sea, proposed to put back. Then Cæsar started up and taking him by the hand, said: "Go on boldly, my friend, and fear nothing; thou bearest Cæsar and his fortune." The men increased their efforts; but Cæsar's presumptuous boast had no power to command the winds and the waves. He was obliged to return, weary and disappointed, and made no second attempt; and soon afterwards Mark Antony succeeded in escaping the enemy's ships and

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all other perils, and brought the troops safely to Greece.

4. Pompey was at that time at Dyrrachium, now called Durazzo, a city on the coast of Illyricum, opposite Italy, and there Cæsar went to besiege him. His men were much tried by hunger, as they could get very little food in the country; whilst Pompey's soldiers had provisions brought them by sea. But no hardships could crush the spirit of the brave soldiers who had followed Cæsar for so many years; and in order to convince Pompey that he need not expect them to give up the siege, because they were suffering from famine, they threw their loaves into the enemy's camp, and sent word that Cæsar's soldiers would rather live upon grass than change their purpose. They were obliged to do so however, for a disease broke out amongst them, and this with the famine was more than they could bear. But Pompey did not gain any great advantage in consequence. Cæsar removed into Thessaly, and Pompey followed him with his troops and came up with him on the plains of Pharsalia, and there a battle was fought in the year B. C. 48, which is one of the most memorable in history.

5. A river ran through the plains of Pharsalia, which were surrounded on all sides by high mountains. Pompey pitched his camp on a spot where it was very difficult to reach it. He was persuaded to risk the battle against his own judgment; but his men were sure of victory, and amused themselves by preparing for a feast, which was to be enjoyed when the battle was over. They had even settled what great offices and treasures they should have on their return to Rome; and some had gone so far as to hire houses suitable for the dignity which they intended to acquire. These were young men, boasting and presumptuous. Cæsar's soldiers were very dif-

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ferent, and Cæsar took advantage of what he knew to be the character of Pompey's chief officers, and told his troops, when the battle began, to strike at their faces instead of their legs or their bodies, as he was convinced they were so vain of their handsome appearance, that rather than have it injured they would run away. The prospect of a battle was a relief to Cæsar himself; and he cheered his men by saying that the wished-for day was come at last, when they should fight with men, not with disease and famine.

6. The trumpets sounded and the battle began. Cæsar's troops rushed forward, whilst Pompey's stood to defend themselves. The mode of attack which Cæsar had ordered, was one which they were quite unaccustomed to; the young patricians were unable to bear it, and fled because they feared to have their faces covered with scars. Pompey was overcome with anger at the sight; without endeavoring to rally them, he left the field of battle, and retired slowly to his camp, where he shut himself up in his tent. When, shortly afterwards, news was brought him that his army was totally defeated, he disguised himself as he best could, and departed, leaving Cæsar to take possession of the rich tents and pavilions, adorned with beautiful carpets and curtains; the tables spread out with silver, and flowers, and bowls of wine; and all the preparations for that great feast which he had so confidently expected to enjoy himself. Cæsar's conduct upon this occasion was merciful and honorable, as usual. Those who fled were not pursued, and orders were given to spare as many as possible. The letters found in Pompey's tent were burnt without being read; Cæsar preferring, as he said, to be ignorant of crime, rather than to punish it. In his moment of triumph he had no thought of revenge, even against one

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whom he had loved, but who had forsaken him. He sought for Marcus Brutus, and freely pardoned him. Brutus was too high-minded himself not to be struck by such generosity. He followed Cæsar from that hour, until once more he became afraid of his ambition; and how bitterly he grieved for that one fault, and how terribly he punished it, after events will show.

7. Pompey's friends were all dispersed after the battle of Pharsalia. Cicero went to Italy; Cato to Africa; Pompey himself, accompanied by his wife Cornelia and his son Sextus, sailed for Egypt, hoping to find safety with Ptolemy Dionysius, the king of that country. Some years before, the father of this prince had been dethroned by his subjects, and Pompey had assisted him in recovering his crown. It was natural, therefore, to hope that Ptolemy Dionysius would give him support now in his distress. But Ptolemy was a young prince, under the guidance of evil counsellors; and when the intelligence arrived that Pompey was approaching, they gave their opinion as to what was to be done, by saying, "If we receive him we shall make Cæsar our enemy, and Pompey our master: if we dismiss him, Pompey will hate us for being inhospitable, and Cæsar for allowing his enemy to escape. Dead men cannot bite."

8. This was a wicked suggestion for Pompey's death; but it was not declared openly. Achillas, an officer of distinction, was sent to meet him, accompanied by a man named Septimius, who had once been a centurion in the Roman army. Cornelia parted from her husband on board the vessel, for she was not to follow him to the shore. She wept bitterly as she stood upon the deck, watching the boat which conveyed him from her. No civility was shown him. He spoke to the centurion, and calling

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him by his name, said, "Methinks I should know you, friend. Have we not been formerly fellow-soldiers?" But the only reply was a moody nod of the head. Then Pompey took out a little book in which he had written a speech in Greek, which he intended to address to Ptolemy, and thus in silence and gloom they neared the land. Still Cornelia gazed intently. She observed persons of distinction approaching to meet her husband, and the sight gave her hope; but the next minute, Pompey stood up to quit the boat, and she saw swords glitter in the sunlight as Septimius lifted up his hand and stabbed Pompey in the back whilst his companions joined in the attack. Pompey fell, covering his face with his robe. Cornelia uttered a wild shriek, heard even to the shore, and the sailors without delay weighed anchor, and sailed from the spot where such a cruel murder had been committed. The head of Pompey the Great was cut off, and kept as a present for Cæsar; his body was left upon the beach. The inhabitants of the country came near to look upon it scornfully and idly; but there was one person who would not forsake his master's cause even then. Philip, the freedman of Pompey, stood by, watching and guarding the body, and after the careless crowds were gone, he washed it, and wrapped it in a garment of his own, and collecting the planks of a broken fishing-boat, made a funeral pile, upon which he burnt it according to the custom of the Romans. An old soldier, who had once fought under Pompey, came by at the time and assisted him; and thus the last honors were paid to the great general.

9. Cæsar followed Pompey to Egypt. On his arrival at Alexandria, Achillas welcomed him by presenting him with Pompey's signet ring, and his bloody head covered with a veil. He turned away his eyes and burst into tears. So generous a person

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could not rejoice over the misfortunes of the man who had once been his friend.

10. There was now an opportunity for Cæsar to interfere with the government of Egypt, and he took advantage of it. The late king had by will ordered that Ptolemy Dionysius should, according to the habits of the country, marry his sister, whose name was Cleopatra, and reign with her; but this had not been done. Ptolemy's governors hated Cleopatra, and forced her to leave her dominions; and now she applied to Cæsar for his help. Cleopatra was one of the most beautiful women that ever lived; every one who came near was charmed with her: but she had no right principles, and cared only for luxury and self-indulgence. She quite won over Cæsar to her side, for after seeing her he could not bear to refuse any thing she asked, and in order to support her cause he joined his forces to hers, and took possession of the citadel of Alexandria.

11. This war in Egypt—between Ptolemy on the one side, and Cæsar and Cleopatra on the other—is usually called the Alexandrine war. In the course of it the library of Alexandria, the most celebrated in the world, was burnt. It contained 400,000 volumes. The war lasted several months. Ptolemy Dionysius was killed, and Cleopatra was crowned queen of Egypt. Cæsar caused her younger brother to be made king; but he was quite a boy, and she could not bear him, and had him secretly murdered in order to reign alone. It seemed natural to expect after this that Cæsar would go back to Italy; but he was so delighted with Cleopatra that he could not make up his mind to leave her, and remained month after month wasting his time, and living only to amuse himself, until at length the news of a war having broken out in Pontus roused him, and forced him to exert himself. He showed then the same energy and

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courage as ever. He departed for Pontus, defeated his enemies, and set off for Italy, in such a wonderfully short space of time, that his victory was described by himself in these words—Veni, vidi, vici; or, "I came, saw, conquered."

CHAPTER XLI.

CÆSAR'S POWER FULLY ESTABLISHED.

DEATH OF CATO, B. C. 46.

B. C. 46. 1. When Cæsar landed in Italy he was met by Cicero; who had much reason to fear his return, as he had always taken Pompey's part. But Cæsar, in order to show that he had no wish for revenge, received him with the greatest courtesy; dismounted from his horse to welcome him, and walked with him alone a long time. All this attention pleased Cicero excessively; but he still did not feel quite safe, and chose to remain at a distance from Rome, and occupy himself with his books, and the writings which have made his name famous to this day.

2. There was much now for Cæsar to arrange in the city; but his chief trouble arose from the bad conduct of his friends, especially that of Dolabella, Cicero's son-in-law, a person of bad character, who, having spent his own money, wished to have a law passed doing away with all debts. Cæsar, however, soon settled these disturbances, for, as he was chosen dictator for another year, he had full power to do all that he liked.

3. When we compare Cæsar's conduct with that of Marius and Sylla, it is impossible not to respect him. His wish, when he had authority, seemed to

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be to make good laws and forget all injuries: but he could not persuade every one that it was right he should be at the head of the state; and Pompey's friends still kept up war against him in different parts of the world. Cato was his chief enemy. He was in Africa with Juba, king of Numidia, and as soon as Cæsar had brought Rome into order, he set out for that country. His usual good fortune followed him. Juba was defeated; and Cato, who was at Utica, unable to bear the disgrace of falling into his enemy's hands, determined to perform what the Romans thought a noble deed, and destroy himself. He advised his friends to leave the city, and exhorted the inhabitants, when Cæsar was expected to enter it, to throw open the gates, and go out to meet him and beg for mercy. He himself bathed according to his custom before supper, and afterwards sat down cheerfully with his friends, who remained with him conversing upon deep and serious subjects. Upon going to his room he ordered a slave to bring him his sword, but when the man delayed and hesitated, having a suspicion of what he intended to do, Cato burst into a fit of passion, and struck him with such violence that he hurt himself; for although he was a philosopher, and could discourse upon most deep and puzzling subjects, he had not learned to command his temper. The sword however was brought him, and he seemed then satisfied, and taking up a book, sat down to read. The book which he chose was the work of one of the wisest and best of heathens, Plato, a Greek philosopher. It was upon the immortality of the soul, and doubtless at such a time it must have encouraged and comforted Cato, weary as he was of the trials of this life and longing for rest in another. But there was nothing certain in it. Plato and his followers thought and hoped there was a

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world of happiness to come, but they were not sure of it, and the knowledge of a little Christian child would, at that moment, have been a blessing beyond all price to the unhappy Roman; though it would have taught him that self-destruction is a great sin, and that it would be better to live for years the slave of Cæsar rather than commit it. At length, overcome with fatigue, Cato lay down to rest. He slept for some time, and when he awoke made inquiries about his friends, who were to have left the city. This made his son and others who were in the house happier, and they began to think that he had no such intention as they had suspected; but when morning dawned, and they entered his room, they found him lying on the floor half dead from a wound which he had given himself. In distress and horror they tried every means to save his life; but he would not be assisted, and thrusting aside the physicians who attended him, tore off the bandages of his wound, and expired.

4. Cæsar arrived shortly afterwards. He expressed much sorrow for the loss of a man so celebrated for honor and truth, and exclaimed:—"Cato, I envy thee thy death, since thou hast envied me the glory of saving thy life."

5. The only enemy remaining for Cæsar to conquer when the war in Africa was ended, was Cneius Pompey, the eldest son of Pompey the Great, who, with his brother Sextus, was in Spain. Cæsar was afraid to trust the command to any one but himself, and therefore went to Spain as soon as he had arranged his affairs in Africa. This was the last effort made by Pompey's friends, and it was the most desperate of all. Cæsar, however, was victorious in the end. Cneius Pompey was killed, and Sextus escaped and lived in concealment until after Cæsar's death.

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CHAPTER XLII.

JULIUS CÆSAR DICTATOR FOR LIFE.

MURDERED B. C. 44.

B. C. 44. 1. And now, upon Cæsar's return to Rome, it would have seemed that his great ambition must have been satisfied; for he was lord of the vast Roman dominions, being made dictator for life, and the titles of imperator and father of his country were bestowed upon him. The title imperator, or emperor, had a different meaning then from what it has now. It was properly given to the Roman generals as a high honor; but it did not descend from father to son, and might be granted to any person whom the senate wished to reward. Sylla, we may remember, gave the title of imperator to Pompey. Besides these titles, Cæsar was made dictator for life; his statue was placed among those of the kings, and the month in which he was born was named after him—July, from Julius. Yet Cæsar was not satisfied: earthly ambition never is: there is always something which we wish for and cannot have. The wish lurking in Cæsar's heart was to make himself a king: the title of imperator, as it only signified the highest military authority, did not satisfy him. He did not however show this at once, for he occupied himself diligently in reforming the laws, and doing good to the country; and in every possible way tried to gain the affections of the people, and make them feel that he was their friend and benefactor. Amongst other things, he caused Carthage and Corinth to be rebuilt near their former sites, and it was to the persons who afterwards lived in Corinth that St. Paul wrote his epistles.

2. The suspicions of the Romans as to Cæsar's wish

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of being a king, were first caused by some instances of great pride; such as his sitting down when the senate and chief magistrates went to him to confer upon him some peculiar honors. He refused a crown, indeed, which his friend, Mark Antony, who knew what he was longing for, contrived to offer him, upon the occasion of some great public festival; but it was evident that he was not displeased at its being shown that he might have one if he chose it.

3. This notion of Cæsar's desiring to be king made many persons extremely angry; for they believed that the old form of government was best, and that kings were only tyrants. Marcus Brutus especially was of this opinion. He had received great favors from Cæsar since the battle of Pharsalia, but they did not prevent him from seeing and hating his ambition; and at length, contrary to all his natural affection and respect, he entered into a plot to take away his life. Sixty persons were joined with him; one of the chief of whom was Cassius, a man whose chief motive for conspiring against Cæsar was a personal feeling of ill-will, because an office which he desired had been refused him. Cassius it was who first persuaded Brutus that it would be for the good of the country if Cæsar were killed. Many of the other conspirators had, like him, taken offence at some neglect or fancied unkindness; and perhaps there was not one, except Brutus, who really wished for the freedom of the country, though all pretended that it was their only inducement to commit such a crime.

4. The plot was managed very carefully, and an opportunity was soon found for putting it into execution. A meeting of the senate was fixed for the 15th, or—as that day of the month was called in the Roman calendar—the Ides of March. At this meeting it was to be publicly proposed that Cæsar should be made king of Italy, a prophecy having declared that

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none but a king should conquer Parthia, which country the Romans were about to invade to avenge the death of Crassus; and the intention of the conspirators was to murder Cæsar upon this occasion. Although every thing was managed so secretly, Portia, the wife of Brutus, and the daughter of Cato, soon perceived that something was weighing on her husband's mind, and as he did not tell her what it was, she supposed he must be afraid that she had not strength and courage to bear it. Being a person of great firmness and devotedly fond of Brutus, she determined to give him a proof that she could keep a secret, whatever pain it might cost her. She therefore gave herself a wound with a dagger, which brought on a fever; but Portia bore all the suffering so quietly that no one knew of her illness until it became dangerous. Then she informed her husband what she had done, and why; and Brutus, who admired her courage, and respected her sense and judgment, trusted her with the secret of the plot. Portia seems to have had as little idea as Brutus that what he intended to do was wrong, for she allowed him to follow his own course without attempting to dissuade him from it.

5. Cæsar, in the mean time, was not left without some warning of his danger. Spurina, a famous augur, had cautioned him to beware of the Ides of March; and on the morning of the meeting of the assembly, his wife, Calpurnia, entreated him not to go to it, as she had that night been troubled with a frightful dream which warned her he would be murdered. Cæsar was inclined to listen; but one of the conspirators, hearing that there was some delay, hastened to his house, and laughing at Calpurnia's fears, persuaded him to keep to his purpose.

6. As he passed through the street, the augur Spurina met him. Cæsar smiled at him, and said:—

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"Spurina, the Ides of March are come." "Yes," replied the augur; "but they are not past." Again he was stopped: a paper was thrust into his hand containing a full account of the conspiracy; but there was no time then to read it, and Cæsar passed on. The conspirators were waiting his approach in some alarm, for they had reason to think that the plot was discovered. A senator came up to one of them, named Casca, and said:—"You have kept your secret from me, but Brutus has told me the whole." This was a startling speech, but it meant only that the senator knew the means by which Casca had lately become rich. Another senator whispered to Brutus and Cassius:—"My wishes are with you; but delay not, for the affair is now no secret;" and the same person went up to Cæsar as soon as he reached the door of the great hall, and talked to him for some time. Cæsar appeared to listen very attentively, and the conspirators then were nearly certain they were betrayed; but at last the senator kissed Cæsar's hand, which was a mark that he had been making a petition, and retired. Cæsar entered the hall and stood near Pompey's statue, which he had himself caused to be erected. One of the conspirators drew Mark Antony aside, that he might not be at hand to defend his friend. The others gathered round Cæsar, urging a request for the recall of one of their friends, Metellus Cimber's brother, from exile. Cæsar would not agree to it, and Cimber caught his robe. This was the signal agreed upon. Casca, who stood behind, drew his dagger and stabbed him in the back, and the next instant the whole body of conspirators surrounded him with their weapons drawn. Cæsar defended himself in desperation, till he caught sight of Brutus. The agony of discovering ingratitude was worse than the pain of death; he no longer struggled, but faintly ex-

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claiming, "And thou, too, Brutus—my son!" covered his face with his robe, and fell, pierced with three-and-twenty wounds, at the foot of his rival's statue.

CHAPTER XLIII.

THE STATE OF ROME AFTER THE DEATH OF CÆSAR.

THE SECOND TRIUMVIRATE FORMED, B. C. 43.

B. C. 43. 1. The death of Cæsar is strange and perplexing to us, when we think that Brutus was concerned in it, for Brutus certainly was an honorable, unselfish man: but we must bear in mind that Brutus had no knowledge of what is called an overruling Providence; that is, the power of a Being who orders all for good, and in whom we must patiently trust when we cannot help ourselves without doing wrong. When Brutus saw things, as he thought, going on badly, he believed it his duty to set them right at all hazards. He had never learned that it is a sin to do evil that good may come, and no doubt satisfied himself by thinking that it was far better to kill Cæsar than to allow him to be a tyrant. Persons often deceive themselves in the same kind of way now, doing what they call a little harm in order to gain a great advantage; and they have not the excuse that Brutus had.

2. Cæsar was no sooner dead than Brutus stood forth in the senate house, intending to explain the reasons of his conduct. But no one stayed to listen to him. The senators hastily left the hall, Cæsar's friends retired to their houses, the common

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people shut up their shops, and the whole city was in confusion. Brutus, Cassius, and their companions, marched through the streets with daggers drawn, and then retired to the capitol, where they thought it would be better to remain till they could see something more of the true feeling of the people as to the death of Cæsar.

3. The next day Brutus came down again into the forum, and made a speech to the citizens; but he could discover by their sad faces that they were not pleased at what had been done, for Cæsar had been very kind to them. Still no one proposed to punish him or his friends; indeed it was not at all decided whether they had done well or ill. The senators met together to determine whether Cæsar was a tyrant or not, and the point was only set at rest by Cicero, who persuaded them to leave the question undecided, and to decree that all which had been done should be left, and neither punished nor rewarded. When this was agreed upon, the conspirators came into the city, and Cassius supped with Antony, and Brutus with Lepidus, one of Cæsar's greatest friends, as a sign of their all being reconciled.

4. But this appearance of peace was only a delusion. It was decreed by the senate that Cæsar should have a splendid funeral, and his will be read publicly; and a strong feeling against Brutus and the other conspirators was excited, when the contents of this will were made known. The people then saw plainly that Cæsar had in reality a great wish to be their benefactor; for his gardens were left for the use of the public, and a sum of money was to be bestowed upon every poor man. The greatest portion of his property was bequeathed to his great nephew, Octavius, who afterwards became so famous under the name of Augustus; but Decimus Brutus,

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one of the conspirators, and Mark Antony, were to succeed to the inheritance if Octavius died without heirs.

5. It was on the occasion of Cæsar's funeral that Mark Antony endeavored to increase the ill-feeling against the conspirators which the will had caused. Cæsar's body was then brought into the forum, laid upon an ivory bed, and covered with cloth of gold and purple; and Mark Antony, according to the usual forms, made a speech over it. He reminded the people of Cæsar's valor, mercy, and generosity; of the kindness shown them in his will; and the benefits which he had conferred upon his country: and lifting up the robe which covered his body, pointed to the wounds, as if they would best call for vengeance upon the murderers. This sight excited the citizens almost to madness. They burst forth into cries and threats of revenge, seized upon the benches and chairs of the magistrates, and the counters and tables from the shops, and raising a funeral pile, placed the body of Cæsar upon it, and burnt it, as was the Roman custom; whilst many ladies of rank threw their jewels and ornaments into the fire, to mark their respect and regret.

6. In the midst of this confusion, Brutus and his friends left the city, perceiving that it was no longer safe to remain there. Brutus proceeded to Macedonia, which was a province granted him by Cæsar; and Cassius to Syria, which was his province in the same way. But we must leave them for the present.

7. Antony was now all-powerful, but he used his authority in such a way as to make every one dissatisfied. Cæsar's papers were in his possession, and he pretended that what he did was according to Cæsar's wish; but in fact he upset all the old arrangements, and by the help of Lepidus, decided

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upon making changes in the government of nearly all the provinces. Cicero was the only person who dared to find fault with him. The speeches in which he complained of his conduct in the senate, were called Philippics, and are very celebrated.

8. Antony however had a worse enemy to dread than Cicero, one whom as yet he had scarcely thought of. This was Octavius, Cæsar's great nephew and adopted son, to whom, as was said, he left a large portion of his property. Octavius was scarcely nineteen at the time of his uncle's death. He had served under him, and Cæsar had always felt a great affection for him, and no doubt had discovered his superior talents; for the conduct of Octavius at this period shows that he must have been very much more prudent and wise than persons of his age in general. Octavius came to Rome as soon as he heard of Cæsar's murder, to take possession of his property; but to his great surprise he found that this would be a difficult matter. Antony had seized upon it and used it to pay his own debts, and when Octavius applied for an account of it, he could get neither information nor assistance.

9. The promises made to the people in Cæsar's will had besides never been kept, and great discontent had arisen in consequence. The effect of this injustice and dishonesty naturally was to make Octavius and Antony deadly enemies. Octavius assured the people they should have their rights, and even paid what was required out of his own property; and this gained him great favor. Cicero also took his part, and continued his Philippics against Antony very vehemently; and as great quarrels at that time between persons of exalted rank generally brought on war, it was soon clear that Antony and Octavius would shortly be in arms against each other. Antony began to collect his forces, under the pretence

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of taking possession of the province of Cisalpine Gaul, which was governed by one of the conspirators, Decimus Brutus; but Octavius knew that these troops might be quickly turned against him; and having Cicero on his side to make speeches in his favor, and persuade the senate to do what he wished, he induced them to declare Antony a public enemy; whilst an army was actually given to himself to support Decimus Brutus against him.

10. This was a very strange mixture of persons and parties; but every one seems to have been thinking of himself, and not to have cared whom he joined with, as long as it was for his own interest. Octavius was Antony's enemy for some time, and war was carried on vigorously in the north of Italy. Antony was defeated; and Octavius, having by this time gained a great name, forced the senate to make him consul, though he was so young, that at first they quite laughed at the request. A law was immediately passed, declaring that all the murderers of Cæsar were outlaws; and they were in consequence driven from one place to another in fear of their lives, till at length they were nearly all, except Brutus and Cassius, killed. After this, Octavius, seeing that the senate were becoming jealous of his power, thought it might be more for his advantage to take part with Antony. Accordingly he proposed to make peace with him, and to meet him and his friend Lepidus at a place appointed, where they might settle how they should together manage the affairs of the state for the future. This meeting took place in the year B. C. 43, and the arrangement which was then made was like that which had before been agreed upon by Pompey, Crassus, and Julius Cæsar.

11. Antony, Octavius, and Lepidus formed a second triumvirate. They were to rule together, to support each other, to divide the government of the provinces

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as they chose; and, to gain the favor of the soldiers by giving them the lands of the citizens.

12. Then they took the whole power of the state into their own hands; and, in order to be certain of putting their plans in execution, determined to kill all their enemies by proscription. A list was made of the persons to be murdered. Each had private enemies and private friends; but this made no difference. The persons mentioned were all to be killed: and Lepidus gave up his brother; Antony his uncle; and Octavius his friend, Cicero.

13. After this most horrible agreement they set off for Rome. Their soldiers were ordered to take possession of the city, and one of the tribunes was forced to propose to the people that the agreement just formed, between Octavius, Antony, and Lepidus, should be made lawful. No one ventured to stop the proceeding; and, as soon as the triumvirate were established as the governors of the state, they began their cruel work of destroying their enemies.

14. A proclamation was set forth, threatening all who protected the proscribed with death, and forbidding their relations to show sorrow for their loss; and the frightful scenes which followed can scarcely be described. Rewards were offered to those who would discover where the proscribed were hidden; and slaves gave up their masters, and even children their parents, for the sake of money. Many fled from the city, and died from want; the streets were filled with dead bodies, and it seemed as if Rome was doomed to destruction.

15. Cicero was at his villa at Tusculum when the list of the persons proscribed was published. He tried to escape; but, being very unwell, was obliged to be carried in a litter, and his pursuers reached him before he could arrive at the seacoast. The slaves would have defended him, but he would not allow

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them to do so, and when the horsemen came up, he quietly stretched out his head, and at one blow it was severed from his body; and his right hand, with which he had written the Philippics, was also cut off at Antony's desire. It is said that Antony gazed on the head with delight, and sent it to his wife Fulvia, who was even more cruel than himself, and pierced the tongue with a golden bodkin, which she wore in her hair, in revenge for the speeches that Cicero had made against her husband.

CHAPTER XLIV.

BRUTUS AND CASSIUS,

DEFEATED AT PHILIPPI, B.C. 42.

B. C. 42. 1. WHILST all these events were passing in Italy, Brutus and Cassius had been engaged in defending their provinces of Macedonia and Syria against the governors who were sent by Antony to take possession of them: but when the triumvirate was established they met at Sardis, in Asia Minor, and agreed to join their forces and prepare for regular war. Large armies were collected by them, and they were much assisted by Sextus Pompeius, the son of Pompey the Great, who had ventured from his place of concealment when he heard of the death of Cæsar, and had made himself master of Sicily, the island from which the Romans procured their corn, and which was therefore a very important place.

2. Brutus must by this time have been very unhappy. He had tried to order events for himself, and every thing had failed. The death of Cæsar

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had brought no good to his country, for the triumvirs were much worse tyrants than he could ever have feared Cæsar would be. There were also trials of another kind for him. Cassius and he were not such friends as formerly. Cassius was an avaricious, low-minded man; and Brutus could not bear the manner in which he extorted money from the people under him. They had quarrelled upon this subject, and though they were reconciled again, it could not be forgotten that unkind words had passed between them; whilst, to increase the bitterness of every other sorrow, Portia, whom Brutus so dearly loved, died whilst he was absent from her; broken-hearted at the calamities which had befallen her country.

3. Brutus had now nothing to cheer him but his own thoughts, which could only have been sad ones, and an occurrence, related as having taken place at this time, increased the weight upon his spirits. As he was sitting one night alone in his tent, musing upon the troubled state of public affairs, he suddenly perceived a gigantic figure standing before him. Brutus was startled at the sight, but still kept his presence of mind: "What art thou?" he said; "and for what purpose art thou come?" "I am thine evil genius, Brutus," replied the phantom; "we shall meet again at Philippi." "I will see thee there," answered Brutus, boldly; and the figure vanished. This strange circumstance made a deep impression upon the mind of Brutus, though he endeavored to reason himself out of it, especially as he was then upon the point of crossing over to Macedonia, and shortly afterwards was forced to face Antony and Octavius at Philippi. The battle was begun against the wish of Brutus; but his soldiers were impatient, and would not be restrained. Octavius was ill, and Brutus was victorious over the

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general who commanded in his stead. But Cassius was not so fortunate; his troops were routed by Antony. Brutus saw it, and sent him aid; but Cassius mistook the soldiers for part of Antony's army, and as they drew near gave up his cause for lost, and calling to a freedman, ordered him to run his sword through his body; and so, as he supposed, end all his troubles. The loss of Cassius was a terrible blow for Brutus. He forgot his faults, and bitterly lamented him; but there was still some hope left, and a few days afterwards he was persuaded to risk another battle.

4. This also took place at Philippi, in the year B. C. 42, and, again, it is said, the spectre appeared to him. If it were so, the prophecy of evil being at hand was truly fulfilled. The following day his army was completely defeated, and Brutus galloped from the field of battle. He was pursued, but one of his friends gave himself up to secure his safety; and pretending that he was Brutus, was taken before Antony. The deceit was instantly discovered, but Antony forgave it. Brutus, in the mean while, had fully made up his mind as to what he should do. He saw that there was now no prospect of victory, and resolved to die rather than fall alive into the hands of his enemies. He spoke cheerfully to the persons who remained with him, and said that he hoped Antony and Octavius would be satisfied with his death, and not pursue their revenge any further; and then, retiring to a little distance, entreated his friend Strato to give him the last proof of affection by killing him. Strato hesitated; but Brutus pressed him so earnestly that at last he consented, and presenting the point of his sword, Brutus threw himself upon it and expired.

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CHAPTER XLV.

THE DIVISION OF THE EMPIRE BY THE SECOND TRIUMVIRATE.

ANTONY IN ASIA AND EGYPT, B. C. 41.

B. C. 41. 1. After the battles at Philippi, Antony, Octavius, and Lepidus divided the government of the Roman empire amongst them. Antony went to Asia, Lepidus to Africa, and Octavius remained at Rome. But it was not to be supposed that they would long remain friendly to each other, and the history of the period which followed is nothing but an account of quarrels arising from ambition, selfishness, and luxury. Octavius was resolutely bent upon making himself the sole head of the empire, and the conduct of Antony and Lepidus was such as to put very few hinderances in his way. Lepidus was an old man, and when he retired to his province persons began to forget him; and Antony, instead of devoting his time to governing properly, seemed to have lost every wish but that of living a life of ease and pleasure. The cause of this was the influence of Cleopatra, the beautiful queen of Egypt. Antony summoned her to appear before him in Asia, and answer for having assisted Brutus and Cassius; but on her arrival she charmed him as before she had delighted Cæsar, and Antony left his province and went with her to Egypt, where he remained month after month, entirely neglecting his government, and becoming odious and contemptible to every one who possessed any sense or right feeling.

2. His wife Fulvia endeavored to recall him to

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Italy. She excited a commotion in his absence by making some of the poor people rebel because they were suffering from famine, and the insolent conduct of the soldiers who were settled amongst them; and then she sent to Antony to come and assist her; but Antony only blamed her for creating such disturbances, and went on just the same as before. He was afterwards induced to exert himself when a war broke out in Parthia and Syria, and there was an idea, at that time, that he would give some assistance to Fulvia; but before he could reach her the insurrection was at an end, and Fulvia was obliged to leave Italy, and soon afterwards died. Octavius was then induced to overlook what had passed, and proposed that Antony should marry Octavia, his sister, a lady celebrated for her virtue and beauty, and much too good to be the wife of such a bad man; but who was forced to marry Antony in order to please her brother, and because it was thought desirable that the two chief rulers in the state should be connected by marriage.

3. Octavius and Antony now joined their forces and prepared to attack Sextus Pompeius, who still had great power at sea and did not entirely submit to them. They soon however made peace with him, and Antony went back to Rome and lived for some time a quiet life with Octavia, as if he had been a private person, whilst his legates made war for him in Parthia. The peace with Sextus Pompeius did not last very long, and when war broke out again, it caused a great disagreement between Antony and Octavius. Octavius being in need of assistance sent for Antony to come and help him; but on his arrival declared that he did not want him. Antony was so angry at this, that, if it had not been for Octavia, there would probably have been a violent quarrel between them. She, however, persuaded

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them to be friends, and they agreed to help each other in their different wars, and to continue the triumvirate for five years longer. It is very wearisome to read of these perpetual disputes, but there is nothing else to be expected from persons who join together selfishly. Octavius went on steadily, aiming at his one great object, and every thing which came in his way he set aside. For this purpose he contrived to bribe the soldiers of Lepidus, who were assisting him against Sextus Pompeius, to come over to his camp, and thus oblige Lepidus to give up his authority. The soldiers did so; and Lepidus, without making any effort to regain his power, went to Rome, where Octavius made him the chief pontiff, or priest—an office which he held till he died. Sextus Pompeius, being about the same time defeated, fled to Syria, where he was killed by Antony's command; and there was now, therefore, no rival left for Octavius to dread, except Antony himself.

4. Herod the Great, king of Judea, in whose reign our Blessed Saviour was born, took part in these wars. He was first governor of Galilee, and sided with Brutus and Cassius; but, after the battles at Philippi, he offered to submit himself to Antony, who pardoned him because his father had been a great friend to Cæsar. Afterwards, when there was a war in Parthia, the Parthians invaded Judea, and Herod was obliged to leave his country and take refuge with Cleopatra in Egypt. From thence he went to Rome, where Octavius was so delighted with his manners and appearance, that he made him king of Judea.

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CHAPTER XLVI.

ANTONY AND CLEOPATRA.

THE BATTLE OF ACTIUM, B. C. 31.

B. C. 31. 1. ANTONY carried on the Parthian war himself, whilst Octavius was occupied in taking away the authority of Lepidus and destroying Sextus Pompeius. He was very unsuccessful, but this did not grieve him much, for his only wish was to be again in Egypt with Cleopatra; and, as soon as he could possibly arrange his affairs, he set off for Alexandria.

2. His wife, Octavia, who had always behaved in the most excellent manner, did every thing she could to help him when he was engaged in his wars, and collected troops for him, and provided them with money and clothes; but Antony entirely neglected her, and sent her word that he did not wish her to follow him, as she had intended; and at last he declared that she should not be his wife any longer. Accordingly he divorced her, and immediately afterwards married Cleopatra.

3. After this great insult, there could of course be no peace between Octavius and Antony. Octavius declared war against Cleopatra and her husband; and Antony was in the greatest danger. But flattery and power, and the love of pleasure, must by this time have completely turned his head; for he behaved not only like a wicked man, but a fool—caring only for amusement whilst every one else was in alarm.

4. Cleopatra encouraged him in all his absurdity and extravagance. Their mode of life, their dinners

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and entertainments, were the most splendid that could be imagined; indeed, they seemed to live principally for the pleasure of eating and drinking, and indulging themselves in every wish and fancy. On one occasion, it is said that Cleopatra dissolved a pearl of immense value in vinegar, and drank it off from a mere whim. But in the midst of this luxury Antony was not at ease. Though he called Cleopatra a goddess, and allowed her to have her way in every thing, he was still afraid of her, and at one time thought she was intending to poison him.

5. And, whilst all this was going on, Octavius was steadily following his own plans, and bent upon their destruction. In the spring of the year, B. C. 31, he assembled a great fleet, and an army also, and Antony and Cleopatra took measures for opposing him. Antony had still immense power: he commanded all the provinces from the river Euphrates and Armenia to the Ionian Sea and Illyricum, a country opposite Italy, to the northwest of Greece. Six kings, subject to Rome, followed him with their armies in person; and three others, amongst whom was Herod, king of Judea, sent forces to assist him. Octavius had no foreign princes in his army; but his fleet was better than Antony's, more fit for service, and manned with better sailors.

6. This was a peculiar advantage, for the first great battle between him and Antony was fought at sea, at Actium, on the coast of Acarnania, in a bay which is now known as the Gulf of Arta.

7. At the beginning, the victory was doubtful; but Antony was doomed to be punished by the very person who had led him to forget all his duties. Cleopatra was present at the battle, and when she feared that it would be lost, she sailed away with sixty of her Egyptian ships.

8. Antony heard of her desertion with shame and

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amazement; yet he followed her, and left his men to continue the battle as they could without him. Upon overtaking Cleopatra's vessel he was received on board; but his vexation was so great that he would not take any notice of her, and, placing himself at the stern of the vessel, sat with his elbows resting on his knees, and his head on his hands, and in this state continued for a long time. Cleopatra's attendants at last persuaded him to see her, and Antony, who was really as fond of her as ever, consented to forgive her.

9. The loss of the battle of Actium decided Antony's fate. He tried to raise fresh troops, but in vain; and Cleopatra, who saw that their power was coming to an end, would willingly have fled from Egypt, and even formed a scheme for transporting all her treasures to India, and founding a new empire there; but she was surrounded on all sides by the generals of Octavius, and it was impossible to escape. As a last hope she sent privately to Octavius, offering to give up her crown if only he would protect herself and her children. The answer of Octavius was, that Cleopatra might be spared if she would deliver up Antony. This was asking more than Cleopatra could grant, for she still loved Antony; but she gave secret orders that her fleet should go over to Octavius, hoping in this way to appease him.

10. When Octavius approached Alexandria, Cleopatra shut herself up, with her attendants and treasures, in a tower which she had caused to be built near one of the great temples. Antony, who had seen reason to suspect that she was betraying him, went out to meet his enemy, and was then quite convinced that Cleopatra was treacherous, for all his troops deserted him. Overcome with grief, and utterly hopeless, he returned to the city, intending to revenge himself by killing Cleopatra; but before he

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could reach her the news was brought that she was dead.

11. All his affection for her came back then in an instant: he declared that he would not long live without her, and ordered his slave Eros to draw his sword and kill him. The faithful slave drew his sword as he was commanded, but plunged it into his own breast, and fell dead at his master's feet. Still Antony would not be turned from his purpose: he took up the sword and stabbed himself, but the wound did not kill him; and whilst he was lying on his couch, faint from loss of blood, he was told that what he had heard of Cleopatra was not true, for that she was still living. Immediately he entreated his servants to carry him to her. They brought him to the foot of the tower, and caused him to be drawn up to the top by ropes. He was laid upon a bed, and Cleopatra stood by him in great grief; but it was in vain to think of saving his life, and, after recommending her to seek for mercy from Octavius, Mark Antony expired.

12. Octavius, it is said, lamented the death of Antony; yet he showed little mercy to his widow. Cleopatra thought herself secure in her tower; but one of the officers of Octavius contrived to enter it on one side by means of a ladder, whilst she was engaged on the other, and so took her prisoner. She was treated, however, with considerable respect, and was allowed to bury Antony with great honors; and for a little while she seemed comforted by having to arrange the procession for the funeral, and by the care of embalming her husband's body according to the Egyptian custom; but when this was over she became ill. The thought which preyed upon her mind was, that Octavius would carry her to Rome and exhibit her in triumph. She sent for him, hoping to win his favor, and gave him a list of her

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treasures. One of her servants hinted that the list was not correct; upon which Cleopatra fell into a violent passion, started up and seized him by the hair, and gave him several blows on the face; and at the same time told Octavius that, if she had kept back any thing, it was only in order to make a present of it to his wife, Livia, and his sister, Octavia. Octavius, however, was not to be won over by any flattery. He treated her very politely, but kept his own purpose, and she soon learned that he was bent upon carrying her to Rome, as she had feared. Cleopatra then resolved to die. She begged permission to visit the tomb of Antony; and the request being granted, she went thither with two of her attendants, Charmian and Iras, weeping most bitterly, and declaring her full intention not to survive him longer. After placing flowers upon the tomb, she went back to the tower, dressed herself splendidly, and partook of a rich banquet. In the midst of it a slave brought her a basket of figs, which she took and carried with her to her chamber, where she wrote a note and sent it to Octavius.

13. Shortly afterwards an officer arrived from Octavius. The first thing he saw when he entered the room, was Cleopatra, dressed in her royal robes, stretched lifeless upon a golden couch. She had killed herself by means of an asp, a kind of serpent, which was brought to her in the basket of figs, and the sting of which was deadly. Iras was lying dead at the feet of her mistress; and Charmian, scarcely alive, was placing a crown upon her head. "Was this well done, Charmian?" inquired the messenger of Octavius. "Yes," replied Charmian; "it is well done, for such a death befits a glorious queen."

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CHAPTER XLVII.

AUGUSTUS CÆSAR,

FIRST EMPEROR OF ROME, B. C. 27.

B. C. 27. 1. THE history of the Republic of Rome ends with the death of Antony. From that time the Romans were governed by emperors, the first of whom was Octavius, or Augustus, as he was called by the senate on his return from Egypt. This power, however, he only accepted by degrees; at first it was given him for ten years, then five more were added, and so on, till at length he became emperor for life, and was allowed to leave the title to his successor. This was done with the full consent of all persons of sense and thought, for they were weary of the perpetual wars which had been going on for so many years, and saw that the people had become so turbulent and the nobles so luxurious, that their only hope of quietness was in giving all the authority to one person. Every possible honor, therefore, was paid to Augustus; three splendid triumphs were allowed him, and one of the months of the year, August, was called after his name. Yet, if the persons who rejoiced when Augustus Cæsar became emperor of Rome could have looked into future years, and known who were to succeed him on his throne, they would have felt very differently. Many of the Roman emperors were the greatest monsters of wickedness that were ever heard of; others, who were less wicked, were weak and silly, and brought great miseries upon their country; and the few who really tried to do right were placed in such difficulty from the crimes, and mistakes, and bad examples of the emperors who reigned before

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them, that they could do very little to serve their country.

2. The really important events of these times belong to a very different history—the history of the Christian Church. It was in the reign of Augustus Cæsar that our blessed Saviour was born.

3. When we are writing and thinking of common things and merely human actions, it seems scarcely reverent to dwell much upon such a sacred subject; but it might perhaps be well for us to bring before our minds, for a few moments, the facts which actually took place at this time: to imagine the haughty, ambitious monarch—who had suffered hundreds of his fellow-citizens to be murdered in cool blood, and had sacrificed thousands and thousands in his selfish wars—seated upon a splendid throne, flattered by all who approached him, and obeyed almost by the whole known world: whilst He who created the heavens and the earth condescended to be laid in a manger at Bethlehem. These are very wonderful things to think of; and the history of Rome must always be most interesting and important, because it is so mixed up with the history of our blessed Lord and of His Church.

4. But we must return to the account of what happened at Rome after Augustus Cæsar became emperor. From this time the character of Augustus seems to have changed: he was merciful and forgiving, instead of cruel and revengeful, and appeared to give all his thoughts to the improvement of the laws, the erection of splendid buildings, and the encouragement of clever men. The Augustan Age, as it is called, has been celebrated ever since as a time when learning, and poetry, and accomplishments, were especially valued. Augustus had a great friend named Mæcenas, who was the patron of all the men of talent in Italy. He was an indolent person, fond of

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eating and drinking; but taking a great deal of pleasure in all things which were splendid and elegant: and if persons were really clever, however humble they might be by birth, they were sure to receive help from Mæcenas. Virgil, Horace, and Ovid, were the most famous poets of the age. Cornelius Nepos wrote biographies or accounts of the lives of different persons: and Livy was a distinguished historian.

5. But although Augustus thus employed himself for the good of his people, his reign was not entirely peaceful. There were several conspiracies formed against him; and he was obliged to carry on wars in Spain, Africa, Arabia, Egypt, Gaul, and Germany. The conspiracies were all discovered, and the leaders sentenced to death. In the wars, he and his generals were for the most part victorious; but on one occasion, when there was an insurrection in Germany, the Roman general, Varus, was completely defeated, and his soldiers were cut to pieces. Augustus was so grieved when he heard it, that he was often heard to cry out afterwards, "Varus, Varus, give me back my legions!" Some historians have even said that he never recovered his former quietness of mind.

6. But, in his latter days, Augustus had causes for sorrow which were more likely to make him miserable than even the loss of an army. He was very unhappy in his own family. He had been married three times: his first wife was named Claudia; the second, Scribonia; and the third, Livia Drusilla. Augustus and Scribonia had one daughter, Julia; and Livia had two sons before she married Augustus—Tiberius and Drusus. Livia was a very ambitious, bad person, and had a great wish that her children should succeed to the throne. Drusus, however, died as he was engaged in a war in Germany; and afterwards it was proposed that Tiberius should marry Julia, who was then a widow, having been married twice before, and

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being left with two children, of whom Augustus was very fond. But these arrangements turned out very badly. Julia was a dreadfully wicked woman, and Tiberius did not like her at all; and he was besides very jealous of her two sons, whom he feared would succeed to the throne; so he left her and went to live by himself. Julia became more and more wicked after this, and at last Augustus was obliged to exile her. To add to this great grief, her two boys died, and thus he was left childless, and entirely under the power of his haughty wife Livia, who ruled every thing after her own will.

7. The end of the emperor's reign was, from these circumstances, very melancholy. His health began to sink, and about the middle of August, A. D. 14, it was evident both to himself and to others that his death was near. Such a time must be awful to all, and we might at first suppose that even the heathen emperor would then have felt that all the glories of earth were worthless. But the love of admiration, which had been the great motive of all that Augustus said and did during the course of a long life, never left him; and calling his friends around him as he lay upon his dying bed, he asked whether they thought he had played his part in life well? "If so," he added, "give me your applause." Then sinking in the arms of Livia he expired, at the age of seventy.

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CHAPTER XLVIII.

TIBERIUS CÆSAR,

SECOND EMPEROR OF ROME, A. D. 14.

A. D. 14. 1. THE history of the emperors of Rome will be given but shortly. There is very little to gain from them. Tiberius succeeded Augustus at the age of fifty-six. In his early life he had shown talent and energy; but the chief points in his character really were deceit and suspicion. No one, however, knew how wicked and cruel he really was till he came to the throne.

2. The person whom he most hated was his nephew Germanicus, the son of his brother Drusus, a very high-principled, excellent young man, and extremely beloved by the people. Tiberius had been forced to adopt him as his son during the lifetime of Augustus, and it was thought he would succeed him; and this was quite sufficient to make Tiberius his enemy. The soldiers under Germanicus were so devoted to him that they offered to make him emperor instead of his uncle, but he would not listen to them; indeed, all his actions showed that he was unselfish and without ambition. He suffered, however, from the jealousy of Tiberius, and died in a strange and sudden way at Antioch, in Syria, whilst he was employed in settling matters in the East; and every one believed that he was poisoned by the governor of the province, who had been placed there by Tiberius on purpose to thwart him. Tiberius was the only person who did not seem sorry for his death. His conduct became much worse after the death of Germanicus. He had no foreign wars to occupy him, with the exception of a few insurrections, which his generals quelled without much difficulty; so that he was able

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to give up all his time to his affairs at home, where he became a complete tyrant. His mother Livia was the only person for whom he had the least real regard; but he was very much governed by Sejanus, the prefect or chief of his guards, who was a man quite as wicked as himself.

3. Sejanus did not in the least care for Tiberius: he only wished to succeed him on the throne, and therefore persuaded the emperor, after he had reigned about eleven years, to retire to the island of Capreæ, in the Bay of Naples, and give up the government to him. Sejanus then had full power, and murdered every one who was at all likely to come between him and the crown, which he so much desired. The only son of Tiberius was poisoned; the wife of Germanicus, two of his children, and a great many of his friends were put to death; and his cruelty was so great that many persons killed themselves to avoid falling into his hands. Caligula, the youngest son of Germanicus, escaped, and went to Capreæ, and was afterwards appointed by Tiberius to be his successor.

4. All this time Tiberius shut himself up in his island, and took no thought for any thing but his own pleasure. Every one hated and despised him for his crimes, and feared him because he was always suspecting evil.

5. Sejanus was at last punished by him. Tiberius found out that he was wishing to be made emperor, and accused him of high treason, and the senate condemned him to death. As he was led away to execution the people insulted and cursed him; and, after he was strangled by the executioner, they dragged his body away and cast it into the Tiber.

6. When Sejanus was dead, Tiberius gave still further vent to his rage by other executions. Some persons were killed for having been the friends of Sejanus; others for no cause, but upon false accusa-

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tions. One old woman was put to death because she lamented the execution of her son; another man suffered because he had written a tragedy, which the emperor thought was intended to find fault with himself. The prisons were crowded. At length, Tiberius gave orders that all the accused should be killed at once. The misery which this command caused cannot be described; but, although the unhappy people who suffered were very wretched, there was one person more so—the emperor himself. His life was a perpetual torment from suspicion; his health became very bad; and in one of his letters to the senate, he declared that the gods and goddesses had so afflicted and confounded him, that he knew not what or how to write.

7. As old age crept upon him he became more and more miserable, and in the end fell into a kind of stupor, from which it was thought he would never be aroused.

8. Caligula was then proclaimed emperor; but, to his great horror and surprise, Tiberius soon afterwards recovered. Caligula naturally thought that he should be put to death for what he had done. In his fear he consulted with Macro, one of the attendants of Tiberius, and they agreed that the unhappy old man should be killed. Accordingly, Macro went to his chamber and suffocated him with beds and pillows.

9. The history of such great crimes shocks us the more when we connect them with sacred events; yet, for one reason, it may be desirable. When we see how horribly sinful men may become, we can more fully understand how much an atonement and an example were needed.

10. It was whilst Tiberius was living at Capreæ, and Sejanus ruling at Rome, that our blessed Saviour was crucified. Pontius Pilate wrote an account of

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his miracles, and death, and resurrection, to Tiberius; and the emperor proposed to the Roman senate that He should be reckoned amongst the number of the heathen gods: but they would not consent to it.

CHAPTER XLIX.

CAIUS CALIGULA,

THIRD EMPEROR OF ROME, A. D. 37.

A. D. 37. 1. It is not pleasant to think of Caligula as the son of the noble-minded Germanicus. The history of his reign, except at the very beginning, is as bad, if not worse, than that of Tiberius. The chief difference between them seems to have been that Tiberius was a gloomy, suspicious, cruel monster; and Caligula a wild, frantic, but equally cruel madman. For the first few months of his reign he did well, and made many wise alterations in the management of public affairs, and showed considerable generosity; but, after that, it is said that he had an illness which destroyed his reason. We may hope that this was really the case, for the stories related of him are so absurd as well as so wicked, that we cannot think of them as the actions of a person of sound mind. Amongst other things, it is said that he made his favorite horse consul, and built for it a marble stable and an ivory manger. He also provided it with a house, and furniture, and kitchen, that its visiters might be treated with proper respect; and sometimes he would invite this horse to dine with him, and give him gilt oats and wine in a golden cup. He used to declare himself a god, and command the

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people to worship him. He pretended to make war, and marched over the Alps into Gaul, saying that he was going to subdue the Germans. When he came to the river Rhine, he ordered a body of Germans, who were his guards, to hide themselves on the other side, and then he himself sat down to dinner; but in the middle of it he jumped up in a great hurry, crossed the river, cut down some trees, and returned back again with the Germans who had been hidden, and whom he said were his prisoners. At another time he set out to invade Britain; but after having sailed a little way out to sea he came back, ordered his soldiers to collect some shells from the beach, which he called the spoils of the ocean, and never went any further.

2. His extravagance was beyond every thing that can be imagined. We are told that he sometimes caused jewels to be dissolved in the sauce which he ate. He also ordered ships to be built of cedar-wood, and adorned with gold and jewels; the sails were made of silk; and fruit-trees were planted upon the decks, under which Caligula used to dine. And merely because some astrologer had said that there was as much chance of Caligula's being emperor as of his walking across a certain arm of the sea, three miles and a half broad, he caused a bridge of ships to be built across it, at an incredible expense. The ships were placed in two rows, timber was laid over them, and, upon the timber, houses were built; and then Caligula gave a grand entertainment in honor of what he had done.

3. We might be inclined to laugh at these things, if it were not that Caligula was as cruel as he was foolish; but the horrors of his reign are almost more than we can bear to read of. The grandson of Tiberius was put to death, only because it was said that he wished the emperor not to recover from an illness.

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Caligula's grandmother and several other persons were commanded to destroy themselves; and being in want of money from his excessive extravagance, he obtained it by killing persons, and then seizing upon their estates. The sufferings of these unfortunate people were quite an amusement to him: indeed, he seemed to take delight in cruelty, for he cast numbers of old and infirm persons to wild beasts, to rid the state, as he said, of useless citizens; and was heard to wish that all the Roman people had but one neck, so that he might destroy them at one blow.

4. Caligula's tyranny lasted for more than three years. Then a plot was formed against him, and he was murdered in his palace by one of the prætorian guards, assisted by other conspirators, just after he had returned from the exhibition of some public games.

5. It may be interesting, before we proceed further, to know something of the history of Judea, and its connection with the Roman empire after the reign of Herod the Great.

6. Archelaus, the son of Herod, succeeded his father, as we read in the second chapter of the Gospel of St. Matthew, where it is said, that Joseph, "having heard that Archelaus did reign in Judea in the room of his father Herod," was afraid to go thither with our Saviour and his virgin mother. A brother of Archelaus however disputed his claim to the throne, and both appealed to Augustus Cæsar, who was then emperor, to decide between them. Augustus, after considering the question, determined that Archelaus should have half the kingdom, and be called an ethnarch; and that the remaining half should be divided between Herod's two other sons, Philip and Herod Antipas, who were to be called tetrarchs. This division is referred to in the third chapter of St. Luke's Gospel, which makes mention

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of Herod the tetrarch of Galilee, and his brother Philip, tetrarch of Iturea and the region of Trachonitis. It was this Herod Antipas, the tetrarch, who put St. John the Baptist to death, because he said it was not lawful for him to marry Herodias, his brother Philip's wife, and before whom our blessed Lord vouchsafed to stand whilst the tetrarch and his men of war set him at naught and mocked him.

7. In this way Palestine was governed while Archelaus lived: but, when he was dead, his half of the country was made a Roman province, over which we know that Pontius Pilate was at one time a governor; so that there were Jewish tetrarchs over Galilee and Trachonitis, and a Roman governor over the rest of the land. But when Caligula came to the throne there was a further change.

8. It happened that a young man named Herod Agrippa, who was descended from Herod the Great, was living at Rome during the reign of Tiberius, at which period he was one of Caligula's great friends. Tiberius disliked him, and put him in prison; but, when Caligula became emperor, he released him, and resolved to give him some great proof of his friendship. Philip the tetrarch was now dead; and Caligula proposed to give his government to Herod Agrippa, and allow him to have the title of king. When the news of this change came to Herod Antipas the tetrarch, it made him angry and ambitious, and this bad feeling was much increased by the advice of Herodias, whom he had kept for his wife, against the warning of St. John the Baptist. She told him that if Caligula had made a person like Herod Agrippa a king, he would certainly make him one if he would only ask the favor, and she persuaded him to go to Caligula with the request.

9. It seems as if the punishment of Herod for his sins was especially sent to him through the person

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whom he had done so wrong in marrying; for Caligula was very angry at his presumption, and, instead of making him a king, took away his government and gave it to Herod Agrippa, and banished Herod Antipas to Spain, where he died.

10. Punishment also came upon Pontius Pilate. He was accused of injustice and oppression, and Caligula caused him to be removed from his province and banished to Gaul, where it is said that he afterwards destroyed himself.

11. Caligula endeavored to make the Jews place his own statue in their temple, that it might be worshipped; but the people resisted, and before the emperor could take measures to force them to obey him, he was murdered.

CHAPTER L.

CLAUDIUS CÆSAR,

FOURTH EMPEROR OF ROME, A. D. 41.

A. D. 41. 1. CALIGULA was succeeded by his uncle Claudius, who was a brother of Germanicus. Claudius had hidden himself from fear at the time of Caligula's murder; but the conspirators dragged him forth, and proclaimed him emperor. He was fifty-one years of age when he began to reign; his health was very bad, and his mind was weak. Yet there is reason to think that he was mercifully and amiably inclined; though, unfortunately, he was entirely governed by the persons about him, who were hard-hearted and cruel. Claudius was fond of building, and used also to employ himself in writing history. His books have all been

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lost, but it is not supposed that they were very clever.

2. The principal war carried on in this reign was in Britain. No Roman army had invaded Britain since the time of Julius Cæsar, until Claudius was persuaded to undertake the conquest of the island. He went there himself, but did not remain long; for his disposition was not very warlike. His generals—Vespasian and his son Titus, who were both afterwards emperors—were left to complete what he had begun. They are said to have fought bloody battles, and to have taken possession of the Isle of Wight, and of several towns.

3. Claudius was married four times. His third wife, Messalina, was extremely wicked, and made Claudius do a great many wrong and most cruel actions; and at length she behaved so badly, that he sentenced her to be put to death. He was then induced to marry Agrippina, the daughter of Germanicus—a person more wicked, if possible, than Messalina. Agrippina had been married before, and had one son, whose name was Nero. She had set her heart upon this son's succeeding to the throne, and in order to gain her point, she persuaded Claudius to put aside his own son, Britannicus, and adopt Nero. Claudius, however, did not like Agrippina's schemes, though he was obliged to submit to them; and, when Agrippina discovered this, she formed a plot against his life, and by the help of two other persons poisoned him, after he had reigned about thirteen years.

4. Claudius showed much favor to Herod Agrippa, king of Judea; but Herod did not long enjoy his grandeur. He died after a short reign.

5. The history of his horrible death is given in the book of the Acts of the Apostles. He left one son, named, like himself, Agrippa; who did not succeed

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at once to all his father's dominions, for he was very young, and Claudius chose to make Judea again a Roman province. When Agrippa grew up, however, Claudius made him king over part of Judea, and sent Felix to be governor over another part. This will explain to us a difficulty in the book of the Acts, when we hear of a Roman governor and also of a king. At first, it does not seem easy to understand how they could both be ruling at the same time.

CHAPTER LI.

NERO,

FIFTH EMPEROR OF ROME, A. D. 54.

A. D. 54. 1. THE name of the emperor Nero, who succeeded Claudius, always makes us think of the most dreadful vice and cruelty; and yet Nero was not wicked (or at least no one believed him to be so) at the beginning of his reign. For five years he governed the empire well, and suffered himself to be guided by Seneca, his tutor, and Burrhus, the pre'ect of the prætorian guards, who were both sensible men. Seneca, indeed, is famed as one of the wisest of heathens: his books can be read with profit, even now; for he had great knowledge of religion, and a strong belief in a life after death. It is difficult to believe that he could ever have been the tutor of such a monster as Nero proved himself to be; but the fact shows us how much more powerful example is than words. Nero was taught well, but his mother and his relations were wicked, and the sight of their conduct must, we may im-

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agine, have done away with the good effect of his tutor's instructions.

2. Nero's first great crime was caused by jealousy of his brother Britannicus, whom he had supplanted. He was afraid that Britannicus might raise a party against him, and therefore ordered him to be poisoned. After this his true character showed itself. Though his mother, Agrippina, had been the means of his obtaining the crown, he hated her because she interfered with his authority, and determined to rid himself of her. For this purpose he caused her to be taken out to sea in a boat, which was especially contrived to fall to pieces. Agrippina saved herself by swimming, but her unnatural son was still determined to destroy her, and she was assassinated by his command; and, it is said, with the consent of Seneca and Burrhus. If it were so, there is no reason to wonder that Nero had not profited more by all their good words. Nero repented of this dreadful crime very bitterly, after it was committed; but, instead of amending his ways, he only indulged himself the more in riot and drunkenness, in order to forget it.

3. Burrhus and Seneca soon saw that it was out of their power to control him. Seneca went away from the court, and about the same time Burrhus died; and then, Nero being no longer under the least restraint, gave free vent to all his fancies and inclinations.

4. He sent away his wife, who was a virtuous, amiable woman, and married a very bad person, named Poppæa; and he collected around him a number of the most unprincipled people that could be met with, who flattered him extravagantly and were willing to do whatever he required.

5. His vanity was excessive; he fancied himself a great poet and a musician, and had extreme de-

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light in chariot driving, fancying that he surpassed every one else, and that all the world would admire him; and once he took it into his head to travel through Italy and Greece, and exhibit his talents in public. Wherever he went he was applauded; for persons were afraid to laugh at him, on account of his savage temper: yet it must have been difficult not to do so sometimes, especially when, to show his strength, he caused a pasteboard lion to be brought on the stage in a theatre, and knocked it down with his club.

6. One of the most noted events in the reign of Nero, is the burning of Rome, which lasted for six days. Some persons think that the emperor caused the city to be set on fire himself; and it is said, that he stood upon a high tower, watching the raging of the flames, and would not allow any one to assist in putting them out. The blame of the fire was, however, cast upon the Christians, who were, at that time, increasing in number; and Nero began to persecute them cruelly. Some were covered with the skins of wild beasts, and then thrown to dogs to be torn in pieces; some were crucified; others were wrapped in clothes smeared with pitch, and burnt alive; and, at times, when it was a dark night, the city was lighted up with the flames by which the Christians were killed, whilst Nero amused himself by seeing their sufferings from his garden.

7. About this time St. Paul and St. Peter both came to Rome. St. Paul had been at Rome before, as we learn from the last chapter of the Acts of the Apostles. Although a prisoner, he was then allowed to live in a hired house, and to teach persons who came to him; and it has been thought likely that he was acquainted with Burrhus and Seneca; as Burrhus was the chief of the prætorian guards, and Seneca was his great friend. We learn, besides, from

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what St. Paul mentions himself, that he had friends in the emperor's palace; for, in writing to the Philippians, he says:—"All the saints salute you, chiefly they that are of Cæsar's household:" Cæsar was a name given to all the early Roman emperors. And again, "My bonds in Christ are made manifest in all the palace."

8. This first visit was about the year of our Lord 58; the second was eight years after. At that time also he was made a prisoner, but kept much more strictly than before; and no doubt he must have been well prepared for his fate: for, in the second epistle to St. Timothy, written at this period, he speaks certainly of "the time of his departure" being at hand; and says that he had been called upon to make a defence, "when no man stood with him, but all men forsook him."

9. He could have had no hope of escape when others were suffering, and at last the sentence was pronounced which was to free him from all the trials of life. It was more merciful than that passed upon St. Peter, because he was a Roman citizen. St. Paul was beheaded: St. Peter was crucified; but with his head downwards, at his own request.

10. It is painful to turn from the holy deaths of the great Apostles to the life of their persecutor, Nero. Only a few more events of his reign, however, need be mentioned. In order to free himself from the suspicion and disgrace of having ordered the burning of the city, he rebuilt it with great care. The streets were made wider and more beautiful; and the mistakes which had been made when it was so hastily restored, after the invasion of the Gauls, were done away with.

11. Nero spared no expense for his own palace. It was called the golden palace, from its magnificence: the rooms were ornamented with gold, and

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silver, and precious stones; and it was so large, that parks and lakes were contained within the walls. At the entrance there was an enormous statue of the emperor, a hundred and twenty feet high; and the principal hall, which was circular, had a roof that turned round, to imitate the movements of the planets. Nero's subjects suffered very much from his great extravagance, for he made them pay large sums of money in consequence; and when his palace was finished, he only said, that now he was lodged like a man.

12. Soon after this, his tutor Seneca was accused of joining in a conspiracy against him, and condemned to death. Being allowed, as a great favor, to choose how he would be killed, he caused the veins of his arm to be opened, hoping that he should bleed to death; but, as he was an old man, the blood flowed slowly, and his end was hastened by his being put into a dry stove and suffocated. His wife would willingly have died with him; but though her veins were opened likewise, they were afterwards bound up by her servants, whilst she was fainting, and thus she survived her husband. Lucan the poet, a nephew of Seneca's, was also killed by bleeding, being accused of the same offence as his uncle. Both these celebrated persons showed great strength of mind in enduring their trial. Seneca dictated a discourse to his secretary whilst the blood was flowing from his veins; and Lucan expired whilst he was repeating some verses from one of his own poems, which described a death such as he was called upon to bear.

13. After this, the empress Poppæa died, in consequence of a cruel blow given her by her husband, and Nero then married another person; but the end of his tyranny was fast approaching. In the year A. D. 68 an insurrection broke out in Gaul, and the

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soldiers, who were stationed there, chose Servius Galba, one of their officers, for their emperor. Nero thought little of this at first; but when he found that the prætorian guards in Rome were inclined to take part with the army in Gaul, he gave up his cause for lost. Galba was proclaimed at Rome; and Nero, in great alarm, fled from the city to the country-house of one of his freedmen. Here he spent a day in the most miserable state of mind; not daring to remain where he could be seen, but hiding himself amongst brambles and briers, and having nothing but a little piece of brown bread and some water given him for refreshment. He wished to kill himself, but he had not courage until some soldiers were coming to seize him: then he set a dagger to his throat, and contrived by the assistance of his secretary to give himself a mortal wound. He reigned thirteen years, and died in the thirty-second year of his age.

14. There were some wars in the reign of Nero: one with the Parthians; and another in Britain, where an insurrection broke out headed by Boadicea, queen of the tribes who inhabited Norfolk and Suffolk. Boadicea was conquered, and killed herself to avoid falling into the hands of the Romans. A third war was in Judea. The Jews, being much oppressed by their Roman governors, rose in rebellion against them. Nero sent Vespasian and his son Titus, who had formerly been so successful in Britain, to subdue them; and the war was going on when he died.

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CHAPTER LII.

GALBA,

SIXTH EMPEROR OF ROME, A. D. 68.

A. D. 68. 1. THE reign of Galba was extremely short, lasting only about six months. He was an old man when he came to the throne, and was not liked because he was suspected of being fond of saving money, though most probably he only desired to cut short the extravagance which had been practised by the emperors who went before him. The persons who had the greatest influence over him were three favorite servants, or freedmen; and, by their advice, he acted in a way which appeared harsh and caused him soon to be out of favor with his subjects, and especially with the soldiers.

2. Galba did not know how much he was disliked, and imagined that the great cause of the general discontent was because he had no heir to succeed him; accordingly he chose a young man of high character, Piso Lucinianus, and presented him to the soldiers and to the senate as his adopted son. A sum of money had been promised to the prætorian guards, but Galba unfortunately neglected to fulfil the promise, and in consequence greatly increased the general ill-will; and when Silvius Otho, who had hoped to have been adopted himself, tried to form a conspiracy amongst them to dethrone Galba, they willingly listened to him. The plot broke out six days after the adoption of Lucinianus; for the soldiers seized upon Otho, and declared him emperor. Galba determined to defend himself, but he was killed as he was crossing the forum; and Piso and many of his other friends shared the same fate.

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CHAPTER LIII.

OTHO,

SEVENTH EMPEROR OF ROME, A. D. 69.

A. D. 69. Otho's reign was even shorter than that of Galba: he was emperor only for three months. During that time he showed a better disposition than could have been expected, and seemed inclined to be just, and even benevolent. It was now, however, the practice of the soldiers to choose their own rulers; and the legions in Germany, having received large sums of money from their general, Vitellius, determined to make him emperor instead of Otho. There was a great struggle in consequence. Otho led an army against Vitellius, and was defeated; and, when he found that his cause was hopeless, he put an end to his own life.

CHAPTER LIV.

VITELLIUS,

EIGHTH EMPEROR OF ROME, A. D. 69.

A. D. 69. 1. Vitellius succeeded Otho. His character is one of the most disagreeable that we read of in history. Eating was his one great pleasure, and the stories of his gluttony are quite disgusting. He reigned little more than eight months, and was then dethroned and murdered by the soldiers, who were weary of his contemptible conduct, and chose Vespasian, the general who was carrying on the war in Judea, to take the government from him.

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2. This short account of the first Roman emperors has been given in order to bring down the history of Rome to the reign of Vespasian, and the great event for which it is remarkable—the destruction of Jerusalem.

3. With that we may for the present end. The fall of Jerusalem is an event prophesied by our blessed Saviour, as the type or figure of the destruction of the world; and, in speaking of the events which followed it, a new subject, which cannot be slightly passed over, must be introduced—the spread of Christianity, and its power over the great heathen empire of Rome.

4. It has been said that Vespasian left Judea to take upon himself the government of the empire. Titus, his son, remained to command the Roman armies.

5. In both these princes there is much to be admired. Vespasian set himself earnestly to reform the empire he had undertaken to rule; and Titus carried on the war which he had begun, with courage, skill, and mercy.

6. The Jews made a brave defence against their Roman conquerors; but they lost one battle after another, and one town after another, till at length only Jerusalem was left. It was a very strong city, and, if it had not been for the quarrels of the people within, it would have been very difficult for any army from without to take it. But, instead of joining against their common enemy, the unhappy Jews spent their time and strength in destroying one another.

7. It was at the feast of the Passover, when great numbers of people were collected together, that Titus undertook to besiege Jerusalem. He began by battering down the outer wall, and still, as he went on and gained ground, he continued to offer the Jews pardon, and beg them to submit. But they were

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desperately bent upon resisting him; and even when Titus sent Josephus, one of their own countrymen, who had been taken prisoner, to entreat them to yield, they would not listen to him. At length, Titus surrounded the city so completely that the inhabitants could neither escape nor gain help from any one without; and, as their provisions began to fail, their sufferings from famine became more and more dreadful. Josephus, who wrote a history of the Jews, and particularly describes the last siege of Jerusalem, says that the miseries they underwent were unspeakable; but no words can describe what happened so awfully as the prophecy which was given in the Bible, many hundred years before, in the twenty-eighth chapter of the book of Deuteronomy. Every thing there mentioned was exactly fulfilled.

8. The destruction of Jerusalem was foretold also by dreadful signs in the heavens—chariots, and troops of horses, and a flaming sword, being seen amongst the clouds; but the Jews could not be persuaded to believe that their ruin was so near, till the Romans had taken possession of nearly the whole of the city, and burnt the buildings near the temple: then they were driven to desperation, and sought refuge in the sacred edifice; but a Roman soldier set fire to a window, through which there was a passage into the temple, and in a short space afterwards the whole was in flames. When Titus was told what had been done, he left his tent, and ran to the temple, followed by his commanders and several legions, and, calling to the soldiers, gave them a signal to quench the fire. But they did not hear nor attend; for they were furious with eagerness to revenge themselves for the length of time that their enemies had withstood them, and, rushing into the temple, slew the unhappy Jews without mercy, till their dead bodies lay piled around the altar.

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9. Even to the last, Titus strove to restrain his soldiers and persuade them to extinguish the fire; but a higher Power than his had doomed the temple of Jerusalem to destruction, and, in spite of all his efforts, it was burnt to the ground. The Roman ensigns were set over against the Eastern Gate, and the Romans offered sacrifices to their false deities, and gave praise to their great commander, in the sanctuary of the true God.

10. The fate of the Jews after the fall of Jerusalem is well known. Even in our own days we can see how strictly the prophecy has been fulfilled, which said that they should "be led away captive into all nations," and that "their city should be trodden down of the Gentiles."

11. Titus returned to Rome in triumph, and the arch which was built to commemorate his conquest is to be seen at this day.

12. There is much to excite our interest in the character of Titus, and the change which took place in him after he became emperor. Before that time there was reason to fear that he would, like Caligula or Nero, give way to vice and extravagance; but when he came to the throne, after his father's death, he cast aside all his bad habits, and became an example of humanity and goodness.

13. It is said of him, that, recollecting one night that he had done nothing during the day to benefit his subjects and friends, he exclaimed, "Alas! I have lost a day."

14. Domitian, his brother, a monster of wickedness succeeded him. In his reign the Christians were cruelly persecuted.

15. Thirty-three heathen emperors reigned over the Roman empire after Domitian. Of these the best were:—

Nerva—famed for his gentleness and mercy.

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Trajan—a noble, warlike, just prince; but a great enemy to the Christians.

Hadrian—who was not so good in his private character, but governed the empire with much wisdom.

Antoninus Pius—who gave his whole time and thoughts to making his people happy, cared very little for luxury, and was particularly patient and courteous. And

Marcus Aurelius—commonly called the Philosopher—who is described as being severe and conscientious towards himself, and gentle and considerate to every one else; and who was yet induced to allow a cruel persecution of the Christians in Gaul.

16. Amongst the worst emperors, were Domitian, the brother of Titus; Commodus, the successor of Marcus Aurelius; and Heliogabalus.

17. Constantine the Great succeeded. He was converted to Christianity early in his reign, by the miraculous appearance of a bright cross in the heavens, inscribed with the words, "In this overcome," as he was engaged in a war against a general who was his rival. This great event took place more than three hundred years after the birth of our blessed Lord. Constantine removed from Rome to the city of Byzantium, or Constantinople, intending to make it the capital city, and from that time the empire of Rome was divided into two parts, and governed by two emperors: Rome being the capital of the Western Empire, and Constantinople of the Eastern.

18. In the course of five hundred years after the birth of our Lord, the Western Empire was overrun by the Goths, Vandals, Huns, and other warlike tribes from the distant parts of Europe; who, finding the ancient inhabitants of Italy, Spain, and several southern countries entirely weakened by habits

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of luxury and ease, were able to dispossess them, and settle themselves in their place.

19. The Eastern Empire—or, as it is often called, the Greek Empire—lasted much longer; for, although its power was much lessened, it was not entirely overthrown until the year A. D. 1453, when the Turks, under their sultan Mohammed II., took Constantinople.

CHAPTER LV.

1. HAVING learned so much of the history of the Romans, it may be useful to know something of their dwellings, habits, and manners; although these can scarcely be described with perfect correctness, as they must have changed from time to time. The account which will now be given of them is according to what they are believed to have been in the days when the Romans were most civilized.

2. A Roman house was, in many respects, very unlike an English house; for the warm climate enabled the people to do many things which we cannot venture upon. There was a sort of court before the door, round three sides of which the rest of the house was built. The street-door opened into a hall, where a porter was stationed, and a dog frequently kept for protection; and beyond the hall was a large apartment called the Atrium, with an opening in the roof through which the rain-water fell into a cistern in the floor. This cistern was usually ornamented with statues and columns, and thus made beautiful as well as useful: this was the principal room in the house, and was used for receiving visiters. The images of their ancestors were placed in it, and the fireplace

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was considered sacred, and dedicated to the Lares, or household gods. It was fitted up very splendidly: indeed, the Romans went to a vast expense for the furnishing and adornment of their houses; so that we are told of as much as 30,000*l.* being given as the price of one; and of a villa so magnificent, that, when it was burnt, the loss was estimated at more than 800,000*l.*

3. There was often a court besides, open to the sky and surrounded by columns, and decorated with trees and flowers.

4. The rest of the house varied according to the taste of the person who lived in it. The bedrooms were small; and, as the Romans generally rested in the middle of the day, there were apartments of this kind both for the day and the night. Their beds were rather high, and usually entered by means of steps. Sometimes they were made of metal; sometimes of costly wood, ornamented with tortoise-shell and ivory. The counterpanes were generally purple, embroidered with beautiful figures in gold. It is not known whether they had curtains. The dining-room was usually of an oblong shape, and fitted up with soft couches; for the Roman men did not sit up as we do, but were accustomed to lie one behind another, with their backs supported by cushions. The ladies however generally sat. The dishes were placed upon a table in the middle.

5. The floors of the rooms were usually covered with stone or marble, or what is called mosaic work; which is a pattern made of very small pieces of different colored marbles, inlaid.

6. The Roman houses had but few windows, very small, and high in the wall. In the early times, windows were merely openings in the wall, closed by means of shutters: afterwards they were made of a transparent stone; and, in the times of the emperors,

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glass began to be used. The bedrooms must have been extremely dark; for the windows did not generally open into the street, but into the atrium, which was lighted from the opening in the roof.

7. Instead of stoves or fireplaces, the Romans heated their houses, when they found it necessary, by braziers of coal or charcoal, which could be moved from one place to another. Sometimes they warmed the rooms by hot air, conveyed through pipes; but the mildness of the climate often enabled them to do without any thing of the kind. It is generally thought that they had no chimneys; but that the smoke escaped through the windows, doors, and openings in the roof.

8. The tops of the houses were flat; and terraces were made upon them, with artificial gardens, where persons might enjoy basking in the sun.

9. The principal Roman meal was like ours—the dinner, or cœna, taken about three o'clock in the day, or later. Children and invalids sometimes had a meal of bread and dried fruits very early in the morning, and it was customary to take a light luncheon about twelve o'clock; but the luxury and splendor of their mode of life was shown in their dinners. These usually consisted of three courses. The first was formed of light dishes, which it was thought would increase the appetite of the guests; such as olives, sausages, dormice sprinkled with poppy-seed and honey, fish, thrushes, asparagus, &c.: then followed the more solid meat, of which pork—especially sucking pig—seems to have been the favorite dish, besides boar's flesh, venison, and game; afterwards came the dessert, consisting of fruits—which the Romans usually ate uncooked—sweetmeats, and confectionary. A peacock was considered a great luxury, but a very expensive one. When the persons who were to enjoy this meal first assembled, they took off their shoes

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for fear of soiling the couch, which was often inlaid with ivory or tortoise-shell, and covered with cloth of gold; next they lay down to eat, the head resting on the left elbow, and supported by cushions. Each person was carefully provided with a napkin, which was particularly necessary, as they had no forks but ate with their fingers. There were usually three persons on the same couch, the middle place being esteemed the most honorable. The servants stood near the tables, with napkins round their waists. Some removed the dishes, and wiped the tables with a rough cloth; others gave the guests water for their hands, or cooled the room with fans; others carried round dishes to the guests; and when any thing was particularly wanted, it was called for by a snapping of the fingers. They drank wine; but usually mixed it with water, and sometimes with honey and spices.

10. The Romans always bathed, and were anointed with oil, before they went to dinner: it was one of their greatest luxuries; and public baths were provided, where any person might enjoy himself at a small expense. When a great man wished to gain favor with the people, he would give them a day's bathing. Gardens and libraries were, in later years, attached to some of the public baths; so that numbers of persons used to meet together there for conversation and amusement.

11. With regard to the Roman dress, the toga was the principal outer garment worn by men, and at one time by women. This was a loose robe, not made up into any form like our dresses, but wrapped round the body. The material was usually wool; and, when persons wished to stand for any office, they rubbed their toga with white chalk: the toga was then called "toga candida." Our word "candidate" is derived from this custom; "candida" being the Latin word for white. Black togas were worn in mourn-

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ing; and, on occasions of triumph and rejoicing, they were ornamented and embroidered. Boys wore a toga with a broad purple hem till they were about fourteen, and this signified that they were not old enough to take care of their own property or govern themselves. There were regular ceremonies used when this first toga was left off, and the man's toga was put on: it was considered a very important event in a boy's life. Girls wore togas also; but they never made any change till they were married: then they put on what was called a stola—a sort of loose frock, fastened round the waist by a girdle, and having a flounce at the bottom. Both men and women wore tunics, or short garments with sleeves, underneath their outer dress; and, when they wished to protect themselves from the cold, they used what we should call blankets—coverings made of the same rough material, but much ornamented. Blankets of this kind were common for several purposes: sometimes they were spread on the ground, and served for carpets.

12. The use of shoes was not universal amongst the Romans: for instance, persons sometimes went barefooted when they attended a funeral; but at other times their shoes were either mere soles fastened to the foot by bands, or else, like our own, covering the instep. The toes were frequently uncovered.

13. The art of printing was unknown to the Romans; and, when they wished to write, they used reeds split like our pens, and wrote with a thick kind of ink, either upon paper made from the bark of an Egyptian plant called papyrus, or else upon parchment. They also used little pointed iron instruments, with which they inscribed letters upon waxen tablets; and, in writing, instead of sitting upright, they generally lay upon couches, and raising one knee, rested the writing material against it.

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14. The public games have already been spoken of; in which, besides the fights of the gladiators, they pleased themselves with chariot races, and the combats of wild beasts.

15. During the persecution of the Christians, the martyrs were often killed by wild beasts at their public assemblies; and their sufferings were a source of amusement to the cruel spectators.

16. The Romans do not appear to have known much about flowers. They had gardens divided into flower-beds and separated by borders of box, as we might have: but the chief flowers which they appear to have been acquainted with, were roses and violets; although they also had the crocus, lily, iris, poppy, narcissus, gladiolus, and others. The most striking part, in a Roman garden, must have been lines of large trees planted in regular order; and alleys formed by closely clipped hedges, and interspersed with statues, fountains, and summer-houses. They were very fond of cutting their shrubs into different figures. Conservatories and hot-houses are mentioned in the times of the emperors.

17. These few particulars will be sufficient to show that, however the manners and customs of the Romans might differ from ours, they had a great love of luxury and refinement, and were in most respects quite as civilized as we imagine ourselves to be.

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CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE

OF THE

PRINCIPAL CONTEMPORARY EVENTS OF ROMAN AND JEWISH HISTORY.

B. C.	JUDAH.	B. C.	ISRAEL.	B. C.	ROME.	B. C.
800	Jotham	758	Pekah .	759		
					Foundation of Rome by Romulus . .	753
	Ahaz	742				
			Hoshea . (End of the kingdom of Israel.)	730		
	Hezekiah . . .	727			Numa Pompilius .	715
700	Manasseh . . .	698				
					Tullus Hostilius .	673
	Amon	643			Ancus Marcius .	642
	Josiah	641				
					Lucius Tarquinius Priscus . . .	617
	Jehoahaz . . .	610				
	Jehoiakim . . .	610				
600	Jehoiakin . . .	599				
	Zedekiah . . .	599				
	(Judah carried captive to Babylon.)					
					Servius Tullius .	579
	Cyrus proclaims liberty to the Jews	536				
					Tarquinius Superbus	535
	Foundation of the second temple .	534				
	Temple finished .	515				
					Consuls first chosen	510
500					Insurrection of the Plebeians . .	495
					Caius Marcus Coriolanus in exile	491
	Ezra sent to govern Judæa	467				
					Cincinnatus dictator	458
					Decemviri begin their task . .	451
	Nehemiah sent .	445				
					Siege of Veii commenced	405

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B. C.	JUDAH.	B. C.	ISRAEL.	B. C.	ROME.	B. C.
400					Rome burnt by the Gauls	390
					Rome rebuilt . .	389
					Agrarian law . .	376
					First Samnite war	343
					Second Samnite wa	326
300					Third Samnite war	298
					Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, lands in Italy	281
					First Punic war begun	263
					Second Punic war begun	218
					A Roman army sent to Greece . . .	200
200	Antiochus Epiphanes' cruel treatment of the Jews	170				
	Restoration of daily sacrifice, and purification of the temple by Judas Maccabeus . .	165				
					Third Punic war begun	149
					Tiberius Gracchus elected tribune .	133
					War with Jugurtha, king of Numidia, declared . . .	111
	Aristobulus, king .	107				
					Cimbri defeated by Marius	101
100					Social or Marsic war	90
					Marius outlawed .	88
					Sylla appointed perpetual dictator .	82
					Sertorius murdered	72
					Servile war, under Spartacus, ended by Pompey and Crassus . . .	71
	The contest between Hyrcanus and Aristobulus the 2d, decided by Pompey . .	63				
					Catiline's conspiracy discovered by Cicero	63

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B. C.	JUDAH.	B. C.	ISRAEL.	B. C.	ROME.	B. C.
					Cæsar's campaigns in Gaul	58
					Cæsar's first invasion of Britain	55
					Cæsar crosses the Rubicon	49
					Battle of Pharsalia	48
					Death of Cato	46
					Julius Cæsar murdered	44
					Second triumvirate formed	43
					Brutus and Cassius defeated at Philippi	42
					Antony in Asia and Egypt	41
	Herod the Great, an Idumean, made king	40				
					Battle of Actium	31
					Augustus Cæsar first emperor	27

THE BIRTH OF JESUS CHRIST.

A. D.		A. D.		A. D.		A. D.
	Archelaus made ethnarch of Judæa, Herod Antipas tetrarch of Galilee, and Philip tetrarch of Iturea	3				
					Tiberius	14
	Pontius Pilate (Roman governor of Judæa)	26				
	Herod Agrippa (made king of all Judæa)	37			Caligula	37
					Claudius	41
	Agrippa, king of part of Judæa	53				
	Felix (Roman governor)	53				
					Nero	54
	Festus (Roman governor)	62				
	Gessius Florus (Roman governor)	65				
					Galba	68
					Otho	69
					Vitellius	69
					Vespasian	69
	Jerusalem destroyed by Titus	70				
					Titus	79

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QUESTIONS.

CHAPTER I.—What is the subject of this chapter?

1. To understand the history of a country, what must we first do?
2. What is the history of Rome said to be? Where shall we find Italy? What countries lie to the north of it? What bounds it on the east? What on the south and west? What is said of its shape?
3. What are the peculiarities of its climate? What range of mountains runs through it, and in what direction? What is further stated in connection with those mountains? What has Italy been called?
4. In reading its early history, what must we remember? Of what only can we be certain? What was the religion of the ancient inhabitants of Italy? In what were they very particular?
5. What one of the principal Italian states is mentioned? What was the name of its chief city? By whom is it said to have been built? What is said of its kings? What two brothers wished to obtain the crown? Which of them succeeded, and by what means? What did he do to make his power secure? Whom did he oblige to become a vestal virgin? What was the duty of the vestal virgins? What law is mentioned with respect to them?
6. What occurred, notwithstanding this law? On what did Amulius determine, and how order it to be done? How was his design defeated?
7. Who found the children? What did he do with them? What names did he give them?
8. What did Amulius suppose? What quarrel is mentioned? Who was taken prisoner? To whom was he carried?
9. What did the two princes decide upon? What did Romulus do? Who was then proclaimed king?
10. What did Romulus and Remus wish to do? What dispute arose between them? What were the augurs?
11. In whose favor did they decide? What city did he build? How did he mark out its size? Where was the plough lifted up, and why? What is the date of this event?
12. At what was Remus disappointed, and how did he act? What further occurred at this time?

CHAPTER II.—Who is the subject of this chapter? When did he begin to reign?

1. What is said of his kingdom at that time? What of his subjects? How did he increase their number?
2. Of what was there a scarcity? By what plan did Romulus remedy the deficiency?
3. How did the Sabines feel and act?
4. Of what did they obtain possession, and by whose treachery? What did she contrive to do? What was her fate? What used to be a custom of the Romans?
5. Did the taking of the Roman fortress end the war? Who at length determined to arrest it?

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6. Why did they wish to make peace? What did they do to effect their object? To whom did they make their appeal? What was at length proposed? Who took an oath, and to do what?
7. What temple was built at that time? What is said of its gates? What do we learn respecting them? What happened to Tatius, and from what cause? What is said of the government after his death? Whom did Romulus choose, and for what? What were they called? What was their number?
8. Where did they meet?
9. What other subjects had Romulus, and what were they called? What other class was there?
10. How did the patricians treat the plebeians? What happened in consequence?
11. What other class of persons was there in Rome, besides patricians and plebeians? What is said of them? What was the lowest class of persons?
12. What is said of the reign and death of Romulus?
13. Relate the story of his disappearance. What did the people say and do?
14. What does the author say in regard to that story? What has been said by some?
15. What prophet was living when Rome was founded?

CHAPTER III.—Who is the subject of this chapter?

1. What is said of the government after the death of Romulus? Who was at last fixed upon? What was his character?
2. What was thought respecting him? What was his custom? Relate some of his good acts.
3. How long did he reign?

CHAPTER IV.—Who is the subject of this chapter?

1. By whom was he chosen? What do we know of his character? How long did he reign?
2. What important event is mentioned as happening in his time? Who went to war? Relate the manner in which they determined to settle their disputes.
3. How did the young men meet each other?
4. What two were first killed? What did the other brother do? Relate what happened to the Curiatii.
5. Where did Horatius go? Before going, what did he do? Who met him? What did he do to her?
6. To what was he not condemned, and why? In what way was he punished? What does that mean?
7. What is said of the peace between the Albans and Romans after this?
8. Why was Tullus sorry? What opinion must the people have had of him, and why? What is supposed with regard to him?
9. What was that among all nations? What example is cited from the Bible?

CHAPTER V.—Who is the subject of this chapter?

1. Whose grandson was he, and in what respect was he like him?
2. What brought him trouble, and why? What is said of the prison he built?
3. Who settled in Rome during his reign? What did his wife desire? Relate what occurred on his arrival at Rome.
4. What did his wife pretend to? What did she think a good sign, and what did she declare?

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5. Why did it seem likely that her prophecy might be fulfilled?
6. How long did Ancus reign?

CHAPTER VI.—Who is the subject of this chapter?

1. What did he prove himself? What did he do for the city? What is still to be seen at Rome? What is said of it?
2. How did he amuse the people? What did he build? What was afterwards done to it?
3. Of what were the Romans fond?
4. About what is there a strange story told? What did he wish to do? In what were the Romans very strict? Of what was the king warned by one of the augurs? How did he treat the augur, and what did he ask him? Relate what followed in this interview. Relate another wonderful story told of an event that took place about this time.
5. Of what were the sons of Ancus Martius jealous, and why? What did they determine to do? How did they effect their purpose?
6. What did Tanaquil then do? What falsehood did she tell the people? What truth did she tell them, and when? How long did Tarquinius reign?

CHAPTER VII.—Who is the subject of this chapter?

1. What was his character? Why did not the patricians like him? On whom did he take pity, and what did he do for them?
2. In what did he make a change? What did he also allow?
3. What effect had these acts on the patricians?
4. To whom were two of his daughters married? What was the name and character of the younger? What did she determine to do?
5. What did she try to persuade her husband to do? What must he have been, and why?
6. Where did he go, and what do? What is said of the senators? What made Servius angry? What did he do? What did Tarquin then do?
7. What is said of the death of Servius?
8. What is related of Tullia in regard to that murder? What did she do? What occurred as she was returning home? What did she say?

CHAPTER VIII.—Who is the subject of this chapter?

1. What is said with regard to his name? What did the Romans soon find him? What effect had his tyranny on the poor and the rich? What temple did he erect? What are we told were called the Capitol, and why?
2. Relate what is said of the books kept in this temple.
3. To what was the king persuaded? What were they found to be? What were they called? For what were they consulted?
4. What wars did Tarquin carry on? What city gave him the most trouble?
5. Whom did he send to Gabii? What did he tell the people of that city? What did he do while at Gabii? What was he not able to accomplish? What did he then do? What did his father do in presence of the messenger, and what did he direct him to tell his son? What did Sextus understand by this? How did he manage to do it?
6. What do these stories prove? In what was he a great believer? Whither, and for what, did he send?
7. Where was Delphi? What temple did it contain? What power was the priestess of this temple supposed to possess? Upon points of importance, what did the people do? Who went to consult the oracle, and whom did they take with them? For what was Brutus

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hoping and watching? Relate what took place between the young men and the oracle.

8. What made Brutus and the chief persons in Rome angry with the king's family?
9. What did not the Romans know to be a crime? What did Lucretia resolve to do? To whom did she send? What did she make them swear? What did she then do?
10. What did Brutus vow? What did he do the next day? What then? What did the people of Rome determine upon? What did the people and senate swear?
11. Whither did Tarquin and Sextus go?
12. What is said of our accounts of the kings of Rome?

CHAPTER IX.—What is the subject of this chapter? In what year were consuls first chosen?

1. Who was left to be chief ruler after Tarquin? What did he wish? Who was chosen? What had the Romans for a number of years? What were they called?
2. For what did Tarquin send ambassadors to Rome? What plots did they contrive, and whom did they persuade to join them? Who overheard them, and what did he do? What did not Brutus refuse to do? Into what were they brought, and by whom? What did the lictors carry? How did Brutus speak to his sons? What did he bid them do? What did he then exclaim? How were his sons punished? What did the Romans think of the conduct of Brutus?
3. Why was Collatinus obliged to give up his office?
4. Whom did Tarquin persuade—to do what? Who took command of the army? Who marched out against them? Relate what is said of the meeting of Aruns and Brutus.
5. What was done with the body of Brutus? Where was his statue placed?
6. Who was consul after the death of Brutus? What was he called? Of what were the people afraid, and why? How did he quiet them?
7. What had Tarquin not given up? To whom did he go for aid? What did Porsenna do? What is said of three men? Give the name of one of them. What was it his duty to guard? What did he know? What was done to prevent Porsenna from following?
8. How did Horatius escape? To whom, and for what is he said to have prayed?
9. How was he honored by the senate and people?
10. Why were the Romans still in great peril? What did they not forget? What was at last determined on? Who offered himself for this purpose?
11. What mistake did he make? To whom was he taken on being arrested? What was the exclamation of Porsenna? How did Mutius reply? How did his manner affect Porsenna, and why? On being told he would be burned to death, what did Mutius do? What effect had that on the king, and what did he do? What was Mutius called?
12. What alarmed Porsenna? What would not the Romans consent to? What were they obliged to do?
13. Under what conditions were the hostages delivered up?
14. What is said of one of them? Who followed her example? What further is told of them?
15. What did Porsenna do after that?
16. In what battle did Tarquin again fight? In their accounts of that battle, what do Roman writers declare? What were the Romans very ready to do?

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17. What is believed respecting Tarquin? How old was he when he died?

CHAPTER X.—What is the subject of this chapter?

1. What is remarked of the history of Rome? What is said of the patricians and plebeians? What is probable?
2. Relate the causes of the sufferings of the plebeians.
3. What was given to the patricians? How were the plebeians treated?
4. What war is mentioned? How did the plebeians behave? Relate why they took that resolution.
5. What was brought just at that moment? How did the plebeians act? Whom especially did this alarm? Who sided with the plebeians, and what did he promise? What of the other consul? What did the people do, and how afterwards were they treated?
6. What is said of some rich patricians? What did the plebeians hold? What did they at length do?
7. What did the patricians now see and do? What did Agrippa tell the people?
8. Relate the fable.
9. What was its effect? What was agreed? How often were these officers to be chosen, and what called? How many were there? What were they allowed? What was made a crime?

CHAPTER XI.—Who is the subject of this chapter?

1. What about this time occurred in Rome? What king is mentioned? What did he do? What is said of a senator? What was his name? What did he think?
2. How did the tribunes feel, and what did they do? What did Coriolanus do? What is said of heathen houses? Where did Coriolanus go? What had Coriolanus been? How was he received? What was soon declared? What was Coriolanus made? Why were the Roman senators afraid, and what did they do? Who at length went to him? How were they received? Describe the interview between Coriolanus and his mother.
3. Whither did Coriolanus return? What is said as to the manner of his death?

CHAPTER XII.—Who is the subject of this chapter?

1. What is said of the patricians and plebeians? When only did they agree, and why?
2. What is particularly to be remembered, and why?
3. Against whom was that war carried on? What misfortune befell the Roman army? Who were in alarm, and why?
4. Who had left Rome, and why? Where did he go to live?
5. When did he appear once more at Rome? What did the senate now consider him, and why?
6. How did the messengers find him engaged? When only was a dictator appointed? What was his power? How long did his office last?
7. How did Cincinnatus receive the message? How did he depart, and after what?
8. What did the senate do, and who waited to receive him?
9. What did he first do?
10. Where did he arrive? What did he then do? How in the morning did the Æqui find themselves? What did they do? What did Cincinnatus order? What was the usual sign of being conquered?
11. With what was Cincinnatus received at Rome? What was given? How soon did he give up his office? Whither did he then go?

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CHAPTER XIII.—Who are the subject of this chapter?

1. Of what did the plebeians chiefly complain? What might the consuls do, and why?
2. What was the conduct of the plebeians under that treatment? When, and to what did the patricians consent? Whom did they appoint? What were they called, and why? For what purpose were they appointed? When did they begin, and how soon finish their work? When it was ready, what did they do? After the whole had been approved, what was then done?
3. What is said of the government while the Decemviri were arranging the laws? What was it supposed they would do? How, on the contrary, did they act? What were the feelings of both patricians and plebeians?
4. What event occurred about that time? What reverses did the Romans meet with? What excited a general ill-feeling against the government? Relate the circumstance.
5. What other Decemvir behaved very wickedly at Rome? Where was he in the habit of going every day, and whom did he see there? What is related of her? What did Appius determine to do?
6. Whom did he order to seize Virginia, and what was he to do?
7. Who appeared with Virginia before Appius? What was he? How did Appius decide? What request did Virginius make? What did he then do, and say?
8. Whither did he immediately go? What was the unanimous determination of the soldiers? Whither did they march, and what did they require?
9. What was done to the Decemviri? What was the fate of Appius Claudius?
10. After that, to what form of government did the Romans return?

CHAPTER XIV.—What is the subject of this chapter?

1. What is said of the towns taken by the Romans?
2. What is said of Veii? What was decided on by the Romans? What did they then do, and with what success?
3. What did they do for several years? What did they then resolve to do?
4. What do the old Roman writers tell? What prodigy is mentioned? What is said of an old soldier of Veii? What did he tell the sentinel, and what did he declare?
5. Where did the Romans send, and for what? What answer was given? What did the Romans then do? What did the people of Veii declare? Who was appointed by the Romans—to be what? What did he do? When was a plan of attack made? What is said of a third party?
6. What was the king of Veii then doing? What did the soldiers hear and do? How did the army enter? Who was killed? What is said of the inhabitants of Veii, and its treasures? What statue was carried to Rome, and what temple was built?
7. What had Camillus? What is a triumph?
8. Why was that one disliked by the Romans? How did he enter the city? What is said of white horses? What of the statues of the gods? At what were the people shocked? Why were the soldiers angry? Of what was Camillus accused, and what obliged to do?

CHAPTER XV.—What is the subject of this chapter?

1. Who asked the aid of the Romans, and against whom?
2. Who were the Gauls? How are they described? By what was their country separated from Italy? What, however, did some of them do?

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3. What did not the Roman senators wish? What did they do?
4. Before whom were the ambassadors taken? What did they say to him? What did he reply?
5. What did the Fabii inquire?
6. How did Brennus answer? What followed?
7. What was against the customs of all nations? What did the Gauls swear?
8. What terrible news came to Rome? What were ever afterwards counted unlucky, and why? As the Gauls came on, what did the Romans do?
9. Whom did Brennus send out, and what word did they bring back? What did Brennus fear? In what state did he find Rome? What could the Gauls do? What did they at last reach? Whom did they find there? What is said of their appearance? What did the barbarians take them to be? Relate what followed. Who had shut themselves up, where, and what determined to do? What is said of the old men left in the forum?
10. How long were the Romans shut up in the capitol? What is said of the condition of Rome at that time?
11. What had nearly succeeded? What noise was heard? What were these? Whom did they wake? What did he do? What did the Gauls propose?
12. What is said by the old writers? When the Romans complained, what did Brennus do? Who came just at that time, and with what? What did he say? What followed? What is said of these accounts?

CHAPTER XVI.—What is the subject of this chapter?

1. In what state did the Gauls leave Rome? On what could not the people agree? Why? By what was the point at last settled?
2. What did each person do? What was the consequence?
3. What is said of Camillus? Why?
4. What is said of the poor?
5. Who felt the greatest compassion for them? What instance is given? What did he declare?
6. From that time, what did he do? Of what did the patricians accuse him? What did they do? How were the plebeians affected by that? What did Manlius really now do? Of what was he at last accused, and to what sentenced? Where, and with whom did he shut himself up? How was he betrayed? What of his house and family?

CHAPTER XVII.—What is the subject of this chapter?

1. Who next tried to help the plebeians? What were they, and in what year? What do they seem to have been? What is there great reason to doubt?
2. With what did Fabia's sister reproach her? What did her father and her husband determine?
3. What is certain? What was settled? What law was proposed? What is such a law called? Before the passage of that law, what used the patricians to do? Of what was that the cause?
4. What course did the patricians pursue? What point was gained, and by whom? To what was Lucius Sextius appointed? What were the patricians still determined on? What new magistrate was appointed? What was given to him?
5. What broke out about that time? What was appointed, and for what purpose? What did the people fancy? Who died of that plague, and at what age?
6. What is said to have happened in the same year with the plague

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What did the augurs say? Relate what is said of a young warrior. What do the ancient writers declare?

7. Of what is frequent mention made, during this period? On one occasion, what took place? Who accepted the offer?
8. Of what does this anecdote remind us? Relate the difference which can always be discovered between the actions of heathens and the worshippers of the True God.
9. What was the wish of the Roman, and what of David?

CHAPTER XVIII.—What is the subject of this chapter?

1. What would it have been difficult for the Romans to avoid, and why? What, besides that?
2. Who were now the rivals of Rome? What is said of their country, and how was it situated? What is said of its inhabitants?
3. How many great wars were there between the Romans and Samnites? What caused the first one?
4. What was of great importance to the Romans? What if they had lost it? What is still more interesting, and why?
5. What had the consul done? How were the troops situated? Who saved them, and how?
6. With what was Decius rewarded? What is said of that crown?
7. What was a custom among the Romans?
8. What other reward is mentioned? To whom was it granted? How long did that first war last? Why did the Roman senators find it desirable to make peace?
9. What is said of the death of Decius Mus?
10. What did the Roman consuls dream, and what agreement did they make? What farther is said of the battle and of Decius?

CHAPTER XIX.—What is the subject of this chapter?

1. From what did it begin? What is there reason to think? What was one of the most remarkable events of that war?
2. By what had the Romans not profited? What at last happened? What were the Romans forced to do? What was required of them? What was the army obliged to do?
3. What was the name of the Samnite general? What might he easily have done? What, on the contrary, did he do?
4. What did the senators suppose? How did the Samnites act? In what respect were they more noble than the Romans? How long after that did the war continue? What were the Samnites then obliged to do?
5. What was caused to be made, and by whom, about that time? What is said of its formation? What is it still called?

CHAPTER XX.—What is the subject of this chapter?

1. When did it break out? In consequence of what?
2. What happened during that war? What are we told? What did he believe?
3. Who was taken prisoner, and in what battle?
4. How did the Romans treat him? What is this considered?
5. How long did the third Samnite war last? What further is said of it?
6. What is said of the town of Herculaneum?

CHAPTER XXI.—Who is the subject of this chapter? When did he land in Italy?

1. Of what were the Romans now masters? What city is mentioned, and how described? What is still called after it? What quarrel

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began, and from what? Whom did the Romans send, and how were they treated? What is said of their return to Rome? What did the Tarentines resolve? To whom did they send, and for what?

2. What was Pyrrhus? What was his character? What was pleasant to him?
3. With what did he land? What was the character of the Tarentines? What did Pyrrhus do when he came to the city? What would not the Romans do? What were they forced to do, how often, and why? How did the battle end? What did it give Pyrrhus? What is said of the next day? What did he say on being congratulated, and why?
4. What was proposed? Whom did Pyrrhus send, and for what? What did he nearly do? But for whom would they probably have done it? What is said of Appius? What did Pyrrhus then do? What then took place, and what did the Romans offer? What did Pyrrhus allow? What did the prisoners try to do? To what were they obliged? What was threatened? What did one of Pyrrhus's soldiers offer to do? What effect had this upon the Romans? What is said of Fabricius and Pyrrhus?
5. Whom did Pyrrhus send back, and for what? What was agreed, whither did Pyrrhus go, and for what? What is said of his return? What is said of the Romans? Of what was Pyrrhus fond? Where and how was he killed?
6. Relate what is said of the Romans after the war with Pyrrhus was ended.

CHAPTER XXII.—What is the subject of this chapter?

1. In what were the Carthaginians chiefly employed? What was the result of this? What was the name of their chief city? By looking on what, may the place where it stood be found? What is said of its size? What of its remains? Whither did they spread themselves? What city did they found, and what is it now called? What is said of the designation of the wars between the Carthaginians and Romans? What is agreed respecting Carthage?
2. What is said of the beginning of the first Punic war? Who had come over from Italy? Of what town had they taken possession? To what does it still give its name? To whom did they appeal, and in consequence of what? To what could not the Romans make up their minds, and why?
3. How did the Carthaginians act towards the Mamertines? On what were the Romans bent, and what did they do?
4. What is said of the part taken by Hiero?
5. In what respect were the Carthaginians better off than the Romans? What did the Roman senators soon see? What did they determine to do? How were their orders obeyed? How did the Romans get the better of the Carthaginian ships? What is said of those bridges?
6. Where did the Romans land, and what do? What must they have done, and why?
7. Who was consul at that time?
8. What does he not appear to have been? What, notwithstanding, had he gained? What seemed possible, and why? What might Regulus have done? Instead of that, what did he do? Who went back, and what did they tell the people? Who was in the city? What did he undertake? How did he succeed?
9. How long was Regulus a prisoner? What were the Romans at the end of that time? What was Regulus obliged to promise, and when?
10. What must have been very pleasant? What was he asked, and how did he reply?
11. State the consequence of that advice to Regulus.

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12. What effect had his advice on the Carthaginians? How is it said they punished him? What have we reason to believe?
13. What was now begun again, and how long continued? What famous general is mentioned? What was his character? For what did he send to the Roman consul, and why? What was the consul's reply? What happened some time afterwards? What did Hamilcar do and say?
14. What were the Romans now able to do, and in consequence of what? What is said of the Roman citizens? What did the Romans attack, and with what result? What were the Carthaginians now obliged to do? To what did they consent? How long did the first Punic war continue?

CHAPTER XXIII.—What is the subject of this chapter?

1. How many years passed before war was again declared? What is said of the two nations during that time? Against whom had the Romans to defend themselves—besides what?
2. On whom did the Carthaginians depend for advice? What was his wish? Why? What was his greatest wish? Before leaving Carthage, what did he do? How did he die? Who now had the command? What did he found?
3. What is said of Hannibal? As what was he fixed upon, and when?
4. Of what did he wish to obtain possession? What did he therefore do? What the Saguntines?
5. What is said of that conduct of Hannibal? What of the best heathens?
6. What was the fate of Saguntum? What afterwards did the Romans do? Who was one of those ambassadors? Repeat what passed between him and the Carthaginian senators. What was now declared, and in what year?
7. What now did Hannibal prepare to do? What lay between him and Italy? What is said of them? How were his soldiers affected? With what did he proceed? What did the Romans now do? What appeared almost impossible? Where was Hannibal, before Scipio reached Spain? What route did he take? What added to his difficulties? What is said of his army at that time? What of Hannibal himself? Repeat the account of his passing the Alps.
8. What did not his army now contain? Where was Scipio? What mistake had he made at first, and what did he still do? Where did the two armies meet, and with what result? What did the Romans now begin to think? What did not Scipio choose to do? What, therefore, did he do? Who was called back? Whither had he been sent, and for what?
9. Whom did Hannibal follow? For what was he anxious, and why? To what was not Scipio inclined? Who persuaded him to attack Hannibal? Where was the battle fought? How were the two armies disposed? What did Hannibal tell some of his men? What did he order? What did not Sempronius do? What were the Roman soldiers ordered to do, and before what? What was their condition? What was the fate of the Roman army?
10. After this, what did Hannibal do? What the Romans?
11. What new general was appointed to command the Romans? Whither did he set out to go? What was Hannibal's great object, and what had he done to obtain it? Where was he overtaken? What is said of that lake? Relate the manner in which Flaminius was surprised. What is said of the battle? What loss did the Romans sustain?
12. How were the people of Rome affected by that defeat? What did they immediately do? What is said of him? What did he resolve?

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What did every one expect? What reasons are given for his not doing it? What therefore did he do?

13. What course did Fabius pursue? What did he sometimes contrive to do? Relate an instance.
14. What did the Roman senators think, and what order? To what was Minucius tempted? What was the conduct of Fabius in that instance? What is said to have been its effect on Minucius? What did Fabius soon after do?
15. What great battle was fought the next year? What was Cannæ? On what day of the month was it fought? Why was it a dreadful day for the Romans? What is said of some of the men of rank? What is said of Scipio Africanus?
16. Who advised Hannibal to go to Rome? On his refusing, what did he say?
17. Where did Hannibal place his soldiers? What is said of the people of Capua? On hearing of Hannibal's approach, what did they do?
18. What is said of Hannibal's soldiers? What of the Romans?
19. For what was Hannibal very anxious? Whom did he send to Carthage, and with what? What is said of many of his countrymen? What, however, did they do?
20. Why had the Romans a great deal to attend to at that time? What may we remember in regard to Sicily? What, after his death, had the successors of Hiero chosen to do?
21. What event is remarkable in the Sicilian war? Who was living in Syracuse? Repeat what is related of him. What monument was erected to his memory, and by whom? What is said of Syracuse? What followed the taking of Syracuse?
22. What did the Romans do in the spring? What was Hannibal doing? What is said of the people of Capua? What of many persons of the highest rank? How did the Romans treat the inhabitants, and why? What did not Hannibal attack, and why?
23. What is said of Hasdrubal's stay in Spain? What two Romans commanded in Spain? What account alarmed the Roman people? Who offered to go to Spain to command their armies? How is he described? What is said of Hasdrubal, at the time of Scipio's arrival in Spain? Why was the journey to Italy easier for him than for his brother? How were all his plans betrayed to his enemies? What was the consequence? What was the conduct and end of Hasdrubal? Whither did the Roman army return, and how soon? How were some prisoners sent in, and for what? What is it said that he saw? What did he exclaim?

CHAPTER XXIV.—What is the subject of this chapter? In what year did Scipio land in Africa?

1. How long did he remain in Spain? At the end of that time what had the Romans become? What was the great wish of Scipio? In what respect was he more fortunate than Hannibal? What princes were often quarrelling with each other, and why? What other cause of hatred was there?
2. What is said of Sophonisba? Who loved her? What did her father say? From that time what did Masinissa determine to do?
3. As soon as what were made, did Scipio set sail for Africa? What did not the Carthaginians attempt? Who commanded their armies? What is stated of Masinissa? In what was Scipio successful? Relate what happened one night.
4. After this, whither did Syphax withdraw? Who followed and attacked him? What was the result of the battle? Of what did Masinissa take possession? Who met him? What did she dread more

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than all other evils? What did she entreat Masinissa to do? What did he swear? What seemed scarcely possible, and why? How did he think he could save her? When Scipio arrived, what did Masinissa do? What is said of the Roman general? What did Masinissa say to Sophonisba? What occurred after he had left her? What message did she send to her husband?

5. What did the Carthaginians now determine to do? With what was the order obeyed, and why? It being impossible to refuse, what did he do? What did he think desirable, before proceeding to Carthage?
6. What must that meeting have been, and why? In what did they not agree, and what followed? By whom was it gained? Whither did Hannibal hasten, and for what? What is said of his return?
7. What is said of brave deeds and great names?
8. What is said of the peace which the Carthaginians now made? What were they obliged to give up? To what besides were they compelled?
9. With what was Scipio honored? What was then given him? What is stated of Syphax?

CHAPTER XXV.—What is the subject of this chapter?

1. With whom was war now begun? What had he done? What did he invade, and what besiege? What did the Romans very willingly do, and why?
2. In carrying on the war, what did the Romans profess? What did they secretly desire? Among whom did they stir up quarrels, and for what purpose? To what did the Macedonian king consent? Against whom did the Romans then turn?
3. Of what was Antiochus monarch? Of whom was he the friend?
4. What stranger was at his court? What is said of his stay in, and his departure from Carthage? How did Antiochus treat him? In what did Antiochus interfere? What reason is assigned for his going over to Greece? What success had he there? Whither did he return, and in what was he mistaken? What did the Romans do?
5. Of what did Antiochus give Hannibal the command? Before he had had a chance to distinguish himself, what occurred?
6. Why was Hannibal at that time in great danger? Whither did he flee? What did the Romans do?
7. What is said of Prusias? Relate what followed.
8. What is said of Hannibal's character? What must we remember, and when?
9. Who died in the same year with Hannibal? What is said of his character? Of what was he accused? What effect had that upon him? Where is it said he died and was buried? What had he sworn?
10. What must we not think? What is said of Philip's death? Who made the accusation? What is said of his friends? What of his love of money? What of his power? Of what was an occasion easily found, and why? Why was that unfortunate for Perseus? What battle was fought? Of what did the Romans take possession? To what was Perseus obliged, and what did he at last do?
11. Describe his treatment at Rome.
12. What were the Romans now acknowledged? What had they been called upon to decide? What is said of the states which were subject to them?
13. What is said of the wealth and luxury of the Romans? What influence did their wars with Greece have upon them, and why?
14. What is said of improvements in their city?

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15. What of their houses? Upon what did they pride themselves? What law was passed, and why?
16. What is said of their religion and manners? What of their sacrifices? In what amusement did they delight? What is said of their habits of life? What is said of the writers who lived about that time? What of other classes?

CHAPTER XXVI.—What is the subject of this chapter? When did it break out?

1. What is said of that war, and why?
2. How did Masinissa trouble the Carthaginians? To whom did they complain, and why? What did the Romans do?
3. For what did the Romans secretly long? Who was constantly urging it upon them? How is he described? What had he heard, and what did he declare? With what did he end every speech he made?
4. What was alleged against the Carthaginians? Whither did the Carthaginians dispatch ambassadors, and for what? What was the only answer given them? What did they do? Still, what did the Romans do? What did the Carthaginians again send, and for what? What were they told? What was soon after sent to the Roman camp? What now did the Carthaginians suppose? What other order came?
5. What effect had that on the people of Carthage? What preparation did they instantly make for defence? Whom did they put to death? What was every one resolved to do? Relate the account of their exertions.
6. Of what was that the beginning? Of what were the Carthaginians not quite destitute? What assistance did they receive? On what did the Carthaginians chiefly rely? Describe the position and defences of the city.
7. What did the Romans soon perceive? Whom did they send, and for what? What was his character? Whose son was he? As what had he been adopted?
8. With what belief did Scipio Æmilianus set sail for Carthage? What was it his intention to do? What did he do on landing? What did Hasdrubal now do, and why? What was the next thing that Scipio did? What then did he set to work to do? For that purpose, what did he order? How did the Carthaginians treat their work? What is said of its progress and completion?
9. What is said of men in great danger? What did the Carthaginians now do? What does it seem they should have done? To what did Scipio still keep? What did he attack? What was now gone? What were they compelled to bear? What cannot we wonder at?
10. What had the Romans now succeeded in doing? State what occurred after their entrance into the city.
11. Where did the Romans once more collect? What order was given? What is said of the progress of the fire?
12. How long did the fire rage? What is said of those who had sought refuge in the citadel? What did they do on the seventh day? What is said of Roman mercy? How many left the citadel, and to what were they sentenced? Who remained behind? Where did they station themselves? What did Scipio do, and what is it said the garrison did? What was now shown? How? What did Scipio promise? What on the next day did he do? What is related of Hasdrubal's wife?
13. How was Scipio affected on viewing the desolation from the citadel?
14. What further was done to Carthage, and according to what decree? What is said of it when Scipio left Africa?

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15. What other city fell a prey to the Romans? For what was it famed? What were taken to Rome? What fell into the hands of the Romans? How were they governed? Like what?
16. What did the Romans complete at that period? Who distinguished himself? What was he called, and why? What did he show, and how?
17. Who are famous, and for what? Relate what is said of them.
18. What is said of the Romans during these foreign wars? What occurred? What further is said of it?
19. What is said of a peculiar punishment amongst the Romans? What have we learned, and why?
20. How were the Roman dominions increased at that period?

CHAPTER XXVII.—Who are the subject of this chapter?

1. What is the next important point to be noticed?
2. Who was the rival of Hannibal? Of whom was he the grandfather? Of whom the father? What is said of her? What of her daughter?
3. To do what did Cornelia take great pains? Of what was she proud? What anecdote is related? Why had she cause for satisfaction? What is said of Tiberius? What did his mother persuade him to do? What did she say?
4. As what did Tiberius offer himself, and when? What was the first thing he did? To prevent what, was that law made? What, in relation to that law, is said of the rich? To what were the poor left?
5. At whom were the rich indignant, and why? How was he treated? What did Tiberius find means to do?
6. What, as mentioned in the preceding chapter, occurred about that time? What did Tiberius propose? What is said of the anger and hatred excited by that proposition? When his year of office was over, what did Tiberius do, and why?
7. What is said of the time when the election took place? What did the enemies of Tiberius do?
8. Of what was Tiberius afraid? What did his friends do? What was told him, and by whom? As soon as he heard that, what did he do? What is said of a body of senators? Relate what occurred to Tiberius. Where was his body thrown, together with what? Who was the chief enemy of Tiberius, and what has been said of him? What was he obliged to do, and why?
9. Who returned to Rome about that time? How was he related to Tiberius? What, notwithstanding, did he say? What did he oppose? What is said of his death?
10. What must Cornelia before this have seen? What did she no longer desire? To whom did she write, and what beg him to do? How is Caius described?
11. What was Caius made, and when? What did he begin to do? What did the senators endeavor to do, and how?
12. What did Caius try to do? What is said of his enemies? Why did the people like him less? What would they not now do?
13. What did Caius, like Tiberius, know? What was soon clear, and why? What is said of dictators? On hearing of what was proposed in the senate, what did he do? Who was his friend? What did he propose? To do what, was he unwilling? Relate what is said of his wife's efforts to stop him.
14. What did not last long? Who was killed? Whither did Caius escape, and with whom? Into what did he fear to fall? Finding them close upon him, what did he do? What is said of his slave?
15. What was carried to the consul? What reward had been promised for it? What further is told respecting it? What is said of his

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body? What is stated of the grief of Cornelia? Upon her death, what was done?

CHAPTER XXVIII.—What is the subject of this chapter?

1. Who made himself famous, and when? To whom did he leave his dominions? What children had Micipsa? What did he desire? How is Jugurtha described? What did he desire, and what do to gain his end? Who was filled with alarm, and why? To whom did he apply, and for what? What did Jugurtha then do? What did the senators say and do? What could not Adherbal do, and why? What took place between Adherbal and Jugurtha? What city was yielded up to Jugurtha? What had he promised? What, however, did he do?
2. Of what were the Romans forced to take notice? What did they do, and when? Whom did Jugurtha bribe? To do what? What did he then do? What is said of his being summoned? Of what crime was he the instigator while at Rome? But for that, why is it probable he never would have been punished? Who committed the murder? What was well known? What is said of their leaving Rome?
3. Who was made commander of the Roman armies? Whom did he choose, and what to be? What was the character of Metellus? How is Marius described? In what were Metellus and Marius successful? Whom did they bribe, and to do what? What is said of Jugurtha's situation at that time?
4. On what terms were Metellus and Marius during that time? Whither did Marius propose to go, and for what? How did Metellus treat him, and why? What, however, did Marius do? After being chosen consul, what was the first thing he did? How was Metellus rewarded? For what part of the world did Marius now set out? Who did he take with him as one of his chief officers?
5. What description is given of Sylla?
6. In what manner did Marius and Jugurtha begin the war? By whom was Jugurtha assisted? What is said of the success of Marius? What place did it seem almost impossible to subdue? In what manner was it built? How at last was it taken?
7. In what did Jugurtha take refuge? What is said of Bocchus? What had he lost, and what did he then begin to think? For what was Sylla sent, and what did he declare? Upon what did Bocchus decide? How did he betray Jugurtha into the hands of the Romans?
8. What is said of Marius's return to Rome? What is related of his triumph? How was Jugurtha treated when the triumph was over? What are we told of his imprisonment and death?
9. Why did he deserve no better fate?

CHAPTER XXIX.—What is the subject of this chapter?

1. What was Marius now called to show? From what were the Romans now in danger?
2. What is said of a former invasion by the Gauls? What is said of the Romans since then? What did they now consider themselves? What is said of their notions of the world? What did they not know, and of what had they a very indistinct idea? What description is given of the people of the north of Europe and Asia? What was ordered by God?
3. What, when we first hear of these tribes, are we inclined to think? Is this really the case? In what is the difference discovered to this day, and among whom? What instance is given? What does not enter our heads?

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4. Who threatened to invade Italy? Whence did they come and where appear? What is it said the Romans did for the Gauls? When did the Romans grow alarmed?
5. Who joined the Cimbri? Who crossed the Alps? Whom did Marius defeat? What did he then do? What were sent to Marius, by whom, and for what? What did they threaten? How did Marius answer them? After that answer, what was done? What is said of the attack by the Cimbri? Why were they easily overcome? What gave the Romans greater power over them? What further is said of the Cimbri? What is said of Marius?
6. What occurred at that period, and where? What is said of those slaves? What is it said a portion of them did? How did the Roman general fulfil his promise? What did the slaves do?

CHAPTER XXX.—What is the subject of this chapter?

1. What is said of events in Italy? By whom, and what, were they caused? What distinction had there always been, and between whom? What reference to that difference is found in the New Testament?
2. What is said of the Italian states? What was Marius in favor of, and why? What opposition is observed in the course pursued by Sylla and Marius? What was he obliged to do, and why? Who opposed him? When? What did his friends tell him, and what did he answer?
3. What is it said Marius contrived? From what was Metellus recalled? How was he received? Whither did Marius now go, and where stay? What reason probably induced Marius to go there? What was the character of Mithridates? Why did not Marius please him, and how did he offend him? How did Mithridates treat him? Whither did Marius go? Of what was he destitute, and why?
4. What a few years after was brought forward? Who united themselves, and with what resolution?
5. What is that war called? From what? When did it begin, and how long continue? What more is said of it? To what were the Romans induced to consent?

CHAPTER XXXI.—What is the subject of this chapter?

1. What broke out, and when? How old was Marius? What did he think, and why? What was he resolved to do? What war broke out, and from what cause? Who was fixed upon, and for what? How was he engaged at the time? What did Marius do? For what did Sylla immediately set out, and by what was he followed?
2. What is said of his entrance into the city? What was done by the inhabitants? What did Sylla do, and what threaten? What followed?
3. In the mean time, what had Marius done, and why? What is said of his being accused? What of a reward? What was Marius, in consequence, obliged to do? When did these events happen?
4. With whom, and where did Marius remain hidden? For what did his son leave him? Why was Marius alarmed? Whither did he wander, and what did he find there? Who were separated, and how? Why was young Marius in danger? How was he saved? What did he do when he found his father was gone?
5. In what respect was Marius less fortunate than his son? With whom did he meet? Why was he the more anxious not to be discovered? What caused him to leave the hut? In what state, and where was he found? What did the soldiers do? What the magistrates? Relate what followed.

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6. Who began to repent, and of what? How did they now treat Marius, and why? Where did Marius land? On what did he seat himself? What may we well believe, and why? Even if he had been a good man, why must Marius still have been wretched?
7. Whilst Marius rested thus amidst the ruins of Carthage, who arrived, and for what? What was the reply of Marius? Who joined him? Whither did they flee? What did they hope to hear?
8. What, in the meanwhile, had occurred at Rome? For what had Sylla departed? Between whom did disputes arise? What was the name of one of them? What did he do? Who marched to Rome? Who joined them? What is said of him? To whom was he not a friend? Why did he support him? What did the senators do, and why?
9. What is said of Marius, whilst the terms of peace were being settled? At what did he stop? What was he begged to do, but what did he say? Shortly afterwards, what did he do? What orders were given? What followed? What came to such a pitch that Cinna and Sertorius could endure it no longer? What did they agree to do? What followed?
10. How did Marius revenge himself on Sylla? What is said of Cinna and Marius? What had Marius always believed would be the case, and why? What was the omen? What arrived from Sylla? With what words did they end?
11. What were these letters like to Marius? What did he know? What is related of the state of his mind?
12. What is said of his death?
13. What reflection is made upon his fate?

CHAPTER XXXII.—Who is the subject of this chapter?

1. After the death of Marius, who was master of Italy? Of what was he afraid, and why? What brought on the evil which he feared? What is said of Sylla's success? Who was sent to command in his place? Instead of submitting, what did Sylla do? What is said of Fimbria's soldiers? What only had Sylla now to do?
2. What had Sylla all the while appeared to be? What is said of his cruelty? How shall we now see him?
3. Who had been taken out of his way, and by whom? Who still were left? What is said of their armies? What of Sylla's soldiers? Who joined him? What was his age, and what had he done?
4. What title did Sylla give him, and why? What was done as Sylla drew near Italy? Who could best have opposed him? Where was he? What is said of Marius and his friends? What of their party? Through what hope did numbers join Sylla?
5. How long was it from the time he refused to give up his command, till he appeared in the neighborhood of Rome?
6. What is said of the party of Marius? What did they order? What did that make Sylla anxious to do? By what was he resisted? What is said of the battle which was fought?
7. What is said of the general of the Samnites? When Sylla had taken possession of the city, what did he order? What did he summon? When they were assembled, what did he do? Relate what followed at that meeting. What act of cruelty was committed?
8. What did not Sylla attempt to conceal? What did he say? What occurred every day? What is said of them? Who assisted Sylla? What had he done some time before, and what did he now beg?
9. What became quite intolerable? What is said of a young man? What did he wish Sylla to publish? What was a person put into that list, said to be? When did Sylla assemble the people, and what tell them?

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10. Of what did Sylla take possession? What law did he pass?
11. What did he force the Romans to make him, and why? What is said of his laws?
12. What did Sylla determine to give up? When was he appointed to the office, and how long did he hold it? What did he offer to do? What did no one dare ask him? What was he allowed to do? Whither did he retire? What overtook him? What was the character of his disease? What must it have rendered him? What is said of his temper at that time? Relate a case in which it showed itself. What is said of Sylla's death?

CHAPTER XXXIII.—Who is the subject of this chapter?

1. To what must we now go back?
2. What is said of the parties into which the state was divided? What did Lepidus desire to do? What Catulus? Who took the part of Catulus? What is said of his influence? What of his character?
3. What broke out, and between whom? What was the result of the contest? Of what was there no hope, and why? By whom was Sertorius much liked? What did he wish to do? What did he appoint? What did he establish? What did the Spaniards think, and why? What was the result of the feeling of the Spaniards in his favor? What reason is given for his opposing Sylla?
4. What was Pompey's great ambition, and what did he determine? What is it said that Pompey knew, and what consequently did he do? On what condition would Sertorius have submitted, and why? For what had he no reason, and why? What is said of his grief? From whom had he a hope of assistance?
5. What had Mithridates always been? What did he now think? What was agreed upon between him and Sertorius? Where did they carry on war? What did Sertorius begin to suspect? To what was he induced by that? What did he order? What did he lose from that time? What is said of one of his generals?
6. Who lost every thing when Sertorius died, and why? What did Perperna offer to do—when, and on what condition? What further is said of those letters; and what of Pompey's high-mindedness?
7. What ended the war in Spain?

CHAPTER XXXIV.—What is the subject of this chapter?

1. What was Pompey now called upon to subdue?
2. What is said of the gladiators? Of what were those amusements one of the chief causes? How did they affect the character of the Romans? What occurred when a gladiator was vanquished? To what were gladiators sometimes bound? How were they rewarded?
3. Where did an insurrection begin? What school did it contain? What number escaped, and under whom did they put themselves? What in a short time had they done? Who were sent against them, and with what success? What is said of Spartacus and his slaves? Who was now fixed upon to oppose them? What is said of him? What of Spartacus? What did the senate resolve to do?
4. Before they could do that, what occurred? What foreboding had Spartacus? What did he order, and what say? What further is related of Spartacus? What was the fate of his army? What message did Pompey send to the senate? What is the date of that battle?
5. What is said of that boast of Pompey? How was Crassus pacified? What did they each try to do? In what way? What is said of an entertainment given by Pompey? Of what had Pompey the better chance, and why?

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6. Relate what is said of those pirates.
7. What vessels did they rob? Whence had the Romans their corn? What made them at last determine to conquer the pirates? What is said of Pompey? What must we remember?
8. What is generally agreed? What enormous power was given him? What, if he had wished, might he have done? Instead of that, what did he do? How did he dispose of the pirates?

CHAPTER XXXV.—What is the subject of this chapter?

1. To what must we now go back? Who was for some time the chief general? For what was he famous? What is said of his management of the war?
2. What would not Tigranes consent to do? What is said of Lucullus being called back to Rome? What other changes were soon made? What power was given him?
3. To what did some persons object? What two persons were in favor of it?
4. What was Pompey doing when the news reached him? What did he pretend—though what? What did he say?
5. What did he immediately do? Rehearse his successes in the war against Tigranes and Mithridates. What afterwards did he do?
6. What is not told us in the Bible? What do we know from other histories? What do the books of the Maccabees describe? What is said of the government of Judæa.
7. What contest was going on in Syria, when Pompey invaded it? What were their names? What did both of them do? What did Pompey choose? What city did Pompey besiege? Who had taken refuge there? Who gives a long description of the siege? Of what does he speak, and what tell us? What does it seem Pompey had, and why? In what did he show no reverence? What has been remarked? What does his after-life show?
8. After doing what, did Pompey prepare to leave the country? Whom did he take with him? By whom, and where was he overtaken? What news did they bring? What is said of his death? To whom was his body sent, and by whom? What did Pompey do with it?
9. What was there now no longer any call for, and why? Whither did he go, and when? What is said of his arrival at Rome? What is related of his triumph? What of the treasures he had taken? What did him the most honor? How did he treat them?

CHAPTER XXXVI.—What is the subject of this chapter?

1. In what connection has Catiline's name been mentioned before? What is observed of his person and character? What qualities were the cause of his engaging in the conspiracy, and why? What was agreed upon, and between whom? When was the plot discovered, and by whom? For what was he distinguished? What is said of his speeches? What great fault had he? What is said of his disposition? What did he not always like to do?
2. By whom was Cicero informed of the plot? When he had learned the particulars, what did he do? Relate what followed at that meeting of the senate.
3. What fell into Cicero's hands, and what did they prove? What is said of some of the principal conspirators? What did Cicero do? What is said of that action? What is a curious instance of the superstitious feeling common at that time? What did he cry out? What did he not venture to say, and why?
4. What was Catiline's wish? What happened before he could do that What is said of his bravery and death?

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5. What was all his life a satisfaction to Cicero? What was he called? What was it usual to swear on giving up the consulship? What did Cicero swear? What might Cicero have imagined? What did after-events show?
6. What is said of the time of Pompey's return to Rome? As what, for some time, did he live? What is said of his ambition? What was a source of continual mortification to him? Who was his principal rival? What appeared probable, and from what? Rehearse what is further said of Cæsar, under this section.
7. What did not show itself for some time? Who joined them? What agreement did they make? From that alliance, what were they called? What did Cæsar do, to render the alliance still firmer?
8. What about this time was Cæsar made? What did he induce the senate to do, when his office was ended? What was the custom? Whom did Cæsar offer to take with him, and as what? Why did Cicero refuse? What was his name? What was his character, and why did he hate Cicero? What did he do in order to be revenged upon him? What was plainly seen? What was Cicero persuaded to do?
9. How long was Cicero in exile? Of what did he complain? How had he been treated—to satisfy what? What did the Romans begin to see? What request was granted? What is said of his return to Rome? What was done, and at the expense of what? What was shown him—as a proof of what?

CHAPTER XXXVII.—What is the subject of this chapter?

1. What has been written by Cæsar himself? What did he find a hard task? What is said of his wisdom and courage? Who alone distrusted him? What did he foresee?
2. What did not satisfy Cæsar? On what was his heart set? What people had visited it, and for what purpose? What is said of Cæsar's knowledge of the inhabitants? What was a great temptation? To do so, what was necessary? How was that object obtained?
3. What did the triumvirs still continue to have? How is that shown? Rehearse what is alleged of them.
4. Whom are we now to follow to the end of his life, and what shall we see?
5. Of what did he boast before leaving Rome? What is said of those countries? Of what was he warned, and by whom? How did Crassus treat him? What is it said the tribune then did?
6. For what did not Crassus care? What temple did he plunder, and of what? What came at last? What is said of his army? Of his son? Of himself? What was carried to the Parthian king? With what did he fill it, and what exclaim?

CHAPTER XXXVIII.—What is the subject of this chapter?

1. What did Cæsar never forget? Accordingly, what did he do? What at that time were France and England called?
2. How are the natives of Britain described?
3. What is said of this first expedition? With what was Cæsar satisfied?
4. What did he do the next year? What did the Britons attempt in vain? As far as what, did Cæsar go? To what place did he come? How did the Britons think to stop him? What was that place afterwards called? What, notwithstanding, did Cæsar do? What was he then able to do? What did Cæsar grant, and why? What further are we told of that invasion? What did the Britons give up, and when?

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CHAPTER XXXIX.—What is the subject of this chapter?

1. What is said of Cæsar and Pompey? What of two ambitious persons Whose death is mentioned? What was destroyed by her death What is said of her? Whom did Pompey then marry? What after that were the relations between Cæsar and Pompey?
2. What now was the state of Rome? Who were constantly disputing? What was the conduct of their followers? Who was killed? What did persons say? What was seen by every one? What, therefore, was proposed? Who was joined with him?
3. What now was Pompey? What did the nobles do, and why? What did they propose, and for what purpose? To what would not Pompey consent, and why? What law did he have passed? Whom did that alarm, and why? What order was sent to Cæsar? What was also declared? Where was Cæsar at that time? What was on the other side of the Alps? What news was brought to Cæsar, and by whom? Who was one of them? What is said of him?
4. What was Cæsar resolved not to do? What is he said to have been in appearance—and whilst what? Whom did he entertain, when, and how? As evening drew on, what did he do? Into what did he throw himself? Whither did he drive? Whither did he then proceed? Rehearse what is related of Cæsar when he arrived there. What was a most important step, and why?
5. Who were alarmed, and when? Until then, what had Pompey believed?
6. What did Cicero advise, and what ask? What was Pompey's reply? What course did he now pursue?
7. What is said of Cæsar's entry into Rome? Where did Cicero remain? Who visited him, and for what? What success had he? What was Cæsar's next object? Tell where he went for that purpose, and what occurred there.

CHAPTER XL.—What is the subject of this chapter?

1. What was a great triumph to Cæsar? What was certain, and what did he therefore do? Whither had Pompey gone? What did he and his friends collect, and where? Whilst they were thus engaged, what did Cæsar do? Whither did he himself go? What is said of Cæsar's good fortune? Whither did he return, and what receive? What is said of his dictatorship?
2. What had Pompey accomplished by this time? Who were on his side? What two men are mentioned? Of all, whom did Cæsar most regret? What did not prevent Brutus from taking part against Cæsar? What did he give up, and for what?
3. Whither did Cæsar sail, and with what purpose? What was he obliged to leave, and where? Why? Who remained with the troops? What was the agreement? At what delay did Cæsar become impatient? How did he disguise himself? What did he go on board, and with what intention? What suddenly occurred? What is said of the master of the boat? What did Cæsar then do and say? What was he obliged to do? In what did Antony soon afterwards succeed?
4. Whither did Cæsar go to besiege Pompey? What is said of Cæsar's men? What of Pompey's soldiers? What was done by Cæsar's soldiers—to convince Pompey of what? What word did they send? What, however, were they obliged to do, and why? Whither did Pompey follow Cæsar? Where was a battle fought, and in what year?
5. What is remarked of the plains of Pharsalia? To what was Pompey persuaded? Of what were his men sure, and how did they amuse

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themselves? What had they settled? How far had some gone? What did Cæsar tell his troops, and why?

6. What was the result of that mode of attack? How was Pompey affected by their conduct? On learning that his army was defeated, what did he do? Of what did he leave Cæsar to take possession? What is said of Cæsar's conduct? What orders did he give? How did he dispose of Pompey's letters? What did he say he preferred? In his moment of triumph, of what had he no thought? What was his conduct towards Brutus? What effect had that upon Brutus?
7. What is said of Pompey's friends after the battle? What two are mentioned, and whither did they go? Whither, and accompanied by whom, did Pompey himself go? With whom did he hope to find safety? What are we told of the father of that prince? What, therefore, was natural? By whom was Ptolemy now controlled? What opinion did they give?
8. Who were sent to meet Pompey? What is related of the parting of Cornelia and Pompey? What occurred between Pompey and the centurion? What had Pompey written? Relate what transpired under the observation of Cornelia. What is stated of his head? What of his body? How was it treated by the inhabitants of the country? What is said of one person? Who was that, and what did he do? Who came by at the time?
9. Whither did Cæsar follow Pompey? How was he welcomed, and by whom? How was Cæsar affected by the sight?
10. Of what did Cæsar now take advantage? What had the late king ordered? Who applied to Cæsar for his help? What had she been forced to do? What is said of her beauty? Of what was she destitute, and for what only did she care? To support her cause, what did Cæsar do?
11. What is that war called? In the course of it what was burnt? How many volumes did it contain? Who was killed, and who crowned? Who was made king? In order to reign alone, what did Cleopatra do? What seemed natural to expect? What is said of his further stay in Egypt? What forced him to exert himself? What did he do in a very short space of time? In what words did he describe his victory?

CHAPTER XLI.—What is the subject of this chapter?

1. By whom was Cæsar met, and when? Why had he reason to fear his return? How did Cæsar receive him? Where did Cicero choose to remain, and why? With what did he occupy himself?
2. From what arose Cæsar's chief trouble? From whose conduct especially? What is said of him? Why was Cæsar able to settle those disturbances?
3. What seemed to be Cæsar's wish? What was still kept up against him, and by whom? Who was his chief enemy? Where was he, and with whom? When did Cæsar set out, and for what? What followed him? Where was Cato? What was he unable to bear? What did he determine to do? What did he advise his friends to do? What the inhabitants? What did he himself do? On going to his room, what did he order? The sword being brought, what did he do? What is said of the book he chose? What was it upon? What must have been its influence on Cato, and why? What is remarked of Plato and his followers? What of a little Christian child? What would it have taught him? What further is related of Cato?
4. What did Cæsar express, and what exclaim?
5. What other enemy remained for Cæsar to conquer? Where was he, and with whom? What was Cæsar afraid to do? What further is stated of this contest?

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CHAPTER XLII.—What is the subject of this chapter?

1. On Cæsar's return to Rome, what was he made? What were be stowed upon him? What is remarked of one of those titles? What of Cæsar's statue? What was named after him? What is remarked of earthly ambition? What was Cæsar's wish? What did not satisfy him, and why? How did he occupy himself? What in every way did he try to do? What amongst other things did he cause to be done? What is said of Corinth?
2. What is said of some instances of great pride? What instance is related? What is stated of a crown? What was evident?
3. What made many persons angry, and why? Who is mentioned in particular, and what is stated of him? What number of persons joined him? Who was one of the chief of them? What is said of his motives? What did he persuade Brutus? What is stated of other conspirators? What is supposed of all, except Brutus?
4. For what was an opportunity soon found? When was the senate to meet? At that meeting what was to be proposed? What had a prophecy declared? What was the intention of the conspirators? Relate what is stated of the wife of Brutus. Of what does Portia seem to have had as little idea as Brutus?
5. What was not Cæsar left without? Who had cautioned him, and of what? What did his wife entreat him not to do, and why? What is related of one of the conspirators?
6. As Cæsar passed through the street, who met him? What conversation occurred? What was thrust into Cæsar's hand? How did the conspirators await his approach, and why? Who came up to one of them, and what did he say? What did he mean? What is said of another senator? Of what were the conspirators nearly certain—when? What did Cæsar enter, and where stand? Whom did one of the conspirators draw aside, and for what? What did the others do? What would not Cæsar agree to? What was the signal agreed upon? What is stated of Casca? What occurred the next instant? How did Cæsar defend himself—till what? Recite what followed, to the end of the section.

CHAPTER XLIII.—What is the subject of this chapter?

1. What is perplexing to us, and why? What must we bear in mind? What had Brutus never learned? What is said of persons of the present time?
2. What occurred in the senate-house? How did the senators treat him? What is said of Cæsar's friends and the common people? What of Brutus. Cassius, and their companions?
3. What did Brutus do the next day? What could he discover? What did no one propose, and what was not at all decided? For what was there a meeting of the senators? By whom, and how, was the point set at rest? When that was agreed upon, what did the conspirators do?
4. What did the senate decree? Against whom was a strong feeling excited, and when? What did the people then see? To whom did Cæsar bequeath the greater portion of his estate? What if Octavius died without heirs?
5. What did Antony endeavor to increase, and on what occasion? What is said of Cæsar's body? What did Antony do? What is related of his speech? What did the citizens do? What is stated of many ladies of rank?
6. Who left the city, and why? Whither did Brutus go? Whither Cassius?
7. What is said of Antony's power? What were in his possession, and

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what did he pretend? What in fact did he do? What is said of Cicero? What of his speeches?

8. What worse enemy than Cicero, had Antony to dread? What is stated of his age? What does his conduct at that period show? When, and for what, did he come to Rome? What had Antony done with it?
9. From what had great discontent arisen? What gained Octavius great favor? What is said of Cicero? What was soon clear? What did Antony begin to do, and under what pretence? What did Octavius induce the senate to do? For what was an army given him?
10. Between whom was war carried on vigorously, and where? Who was defeated? What now had Octavius gained, and what did he force the senate to do? What law was immediately passed? What was the consequence? After that, what did Octavius see and think? What, accordingly, did he propose? When did that meeting take place? What is said of the arrangement then made?
11. Who formed the second triumvirate? What were they to do? Whose favor were they to gain, and how?
12. What did they take into their hands? What did they determine to do? What list was made? What made no difference? Who was given up by Lepidus? By Antony? By Octavius?
13. After that agreement, whither did they go? What order did they give their soldiers? What was a tribune forced to propose?
14. What proclamation was set forth? To whom were rewards offered? What followed?
15. Where was Cicero when the list of the proscribed was published? Rehearse what is related of him. What was cut off, and at whose desire? What is related of his head?

CHAPTER XLIV.—Who is the subject of this chapter?

1. In what had they been engaged while the events just described were passing? Where did they meet, and when? What did they agree to do? By whom were they assisted? On hearing of the death of Cæsar, what had he done?
2. Why must Brutus by this time have been very unhappy? Relate what is said of his trials, to the end of the section.
3. What only had Brutus now to cheer him? Relate an occurrence which increased the weight upon his spirits. What soon after was he forced to do? What is related of the battle? What mistake did Cassius make? What is stated of his death? How was Brutus affected by it? What soon afterwards was Brutus persuaded to do?
4. Where did it take place, and when? What again appeared to Brutus? What was the result of the battle? What is related of a friend of Brutus? What did Brutus now see, and what resolve? Whom did he entreat—to do what?

CHAPTER XLV.—What is the subject of this chapter?

1. How was the government of the empire divided? What was not to be supposed? What is said of the history of the period that follows? On what was Octavius bent? What was such as to put few hinderances in his way? What is said of Lepidus? What did Antony seem to have lost? What was the cause of that? Before whom was she summoned, and for what? What followed on her arrival?
2. Who endeavored to recall him to Italy? How? How did Antony treat her call for his assistance? When was he induced to exert himself, and what was thought at that time? Before he could reach her, what had taken place? What did Octavius now propose? What is stated of her? Why was she forced to marry Antony?

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3. Who now joined their forces, and for what? What, however, did they soon do? Whither did Antony then go, and what is said of his life there? What did not last very long? What was caused by the breaking out of the war again? At what was Antony very angry? But for Octavia, what would there have been? What did she do? What was agreed upon between them? How is it said Octavius went on? What did he contrive to do? Whither did Lepidus go—without what? What was he made? What is said of Sextus Pompeius?
4. What king took part in these wars? What is related of him?

CHAPTER XLVI.—Who are the subject of this chapter?

1. In what was Antony very unsuccessful? Why did not that grieve him much?
2. What is related of his wife? How did Antony treat her? What at last did he declare? What, accordingly, did he do?
3. After that insult, what did Octavius do? What must have turned Antony's head? Why?
4. Who encouraged him—in what? What is said of their mode of life, &c.? For what did they seem principally to live? On one occasion, what did Cleopatra do? What is said of Antony in the midst of this luxury? Of whom was he afraid, and what did he at one time think?
5. What, all the time, was Octavius doing? What did he assemble, and when? What did Antony and Cleopatra do? What is stated of Antony's power? What of kings who followed him, and of others who sent him forces? What had not Octavius? What is stated of his fleet?
6. What was a peculiar advantage, and why?
7. To what was Antony doomed? Who was that? What is stated of her?
8. What were Antony's feelings on hearing of her desertion? Yet how did he act? What further is related of him at that time?
9. What decided Antony's fate? What did he try in vain to do? What was seen by Cleopatra? What scheme did she form? What was impossible, and why? As a last hope, what did she do? What was the answer of Octavius? What could she not do, and why? What orders did she give?
10. When Octavius approached Alexandria, what did Cleopatra do? What had Antony seen reason to suspect? By whom was he deserted, and when? Whither did he return, and in what state? What did he intend? What news was brought?
11. What is said of his affection? What did he declare, and what order? What did the slave do? What did Antony then do? What was he told? What further is related of Antony?
12. Where did Cleopatra think herself secure? How was she taken prisoner? How was she treated, and what allowed? By what for a while was she comforted? What thought preyed upon her mind? For whom did she send, and what give him? What was hinted by one of her servants? How was she affected by that, and what did she do? What did she tell Octavius? What did she soon learn? What did she then resolve? For what did she beg? The request being granted, what did she do? What further is related in this section?
13. Who soon afterwards arrived? What did he see? How had she killed herself? What is said of Iras? What of Charmian? What did the messenger of Octavius ask? What was the reply of Charmian?

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CHAPTER XLVII.—Who is the subject of this chapter?

1. With what does the history of the Roman republic end? By what were the Romans from that time governed? Who was the first emperor? What is stated in regard to that power? With whose consent was that done, and why? What were allowed Augustus? What was called after his name? What is said of many Roman emperors? What of others? What of the few who really tried to do right?
2. What is said of the really important events of those times? What great event occurred in the reign of Augustus Cæsar?
3. Rehearse the whole of this section.
4. To what must we return? What is related of the character of Augustus? What has been celebrated—as what? What great friend had Augustus? Of whom was he the patron? What further is related of him? What celebrated writers are mentioned?
5. What is said of the reign of Augustus? What were formed against him? Where was he obliged to carry on wars? What is stated of the conspiracies? What of the wars?
6. What is said of the latter days of Augustus? In what was he unhappy? How often had he been married? What was the name of his first wife? The second? The third? What children had they? What was the character of Livia? What is said of the death of Drusus? What was afterwards proposed? What was the character of Julia? Of whom was Tiberius jealous, and why? What further is related of Julia and Augustus in this section?
7. What is stated of the health of Augustus? What reflection is made upon his state? What never left him? What further is related of him?

CHAPTER XLVIII.—Who is the subject of this chapter?

1. Whom did he succeed, and at what age? What had he shown, and when? What is said of his character? What did no one know?
2. Whom did he most hate? How is Germanicus described? To what had Tiberius been forced? What made Tiberius his enemy? What is stated of his soldiers? What did all his actions show? From what did he suffer, and how die? What did every one believe? What is said of the conduct of Tiberius? To what was he able to give up all his time, and why? What did he become? For whom only had he any real regard? By whom was he governed?
3. What did Sejanus wish? Whom did he persuade—to do what? Whom did he murder? Who was poisoned? Who else were put to death? What effect had his cruelty on many? Who escaped?
4. What is stated of Tiberius, all this time? How did every one regard him?
5. What did Tiberius find out? What further is related of Sejanus?
6. What is said of Tiberius, when Sejanus was dead? For what cause were some killed? For what, an old woman? For what did another suffer? What is said of the prisons? What orders at length were given? What was the wretched state of Tiberius?
7. What happened as age crept upon him?
8. Who was then proclaimed emperor? What occurred, to his great horror? What did he think? Whom did he consult, and what was agreed? What, accordingly, was done?
9. What is remarked of such crimes? What can we more fully understand—when?
10. What is remarked of the death of our Saviour? What was written to Tiberius, and by whom? What was proposed by Tiberius?

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CHAPTER XLIX.—Who is the subject of this chapter?

1. What is not pleasant? How are Tiberius and Caligula compared? What is said of the first few months of Caligula's reign? What may we hope really was the case, and why? Mention some of the stories related of him.
2. What is related of his extravagance?
3. What is related of his cruelty?
4. What was the duration of his tyranny? What is related of his death?
5. What may it be interesting to know?
6. What do we read, and where? What is said there? Whose claim was disputed, and by whom? To whom did they appeal? How did he determine? Where is that division referred to? Of what does that make mention? What is noticed of Herod Antipas?
7. What happened when Archelaus was dead? How was Palestine then governed? When was there a farther change?
8. Who was living at Rome, and when? How was he treated by Tiberius and Caligula? Who was now dead? What was proposed by Caligula? What is said of Herod Antipas? What was he told, and by whom?
9. At what was Caligula angry? Instead of making him king, what did he do?
10. What is related of Pontius Pilate?
11. What did Caligula endeavor to make the Jews do? Why was it not done?

CHAPTER L.—Who is the subject of this chapter?

1. What was his age? What is said of his health and mind? What is there reason to think? Of what was he fond, and how did he employ himself? What is said of his books?
2. What had no Roman army done? Where is it said Claudius went? What generals did he leave there, and for what? What is said of them?
3. How often was Claudius married? What was the name of his third wife? What is related of her? After her death whom did he marry? What was her character? What child had she? Was he the son of Claudius? On what had Agrippina set her heart? To gain her point, what did she do? What did she discover? What plot did she form?
4. What is stated of Herod Agrippa?
5. In what is the history of his death given? What child did he leave? To what did he not succeed, and why? When he grew up, what occurred? What does that explain?

CHAPTER LI.—Who is the subject of this chapter?

1. What is said of the beginning of his reign? By whom was he guided, and how long? How did he govern during that time? As what is Seneca famed? What is said of his books, and why? What is difficult to believe? What, however, does the fact show? What is stated of Nero's mother and relations? What may we imagine?
2. By what was Nero's first crime caused? What did he order, and why? What after this showed itself? Whom did he hate, and why? What did he determine? Where did he cause her to be taken, and in what? How did she save herself? What was then done to her, by whose command, and with whose consent? How was Nero affected by that crime? In order to forget it, what did he do?
3. What is said of Burrhus and Seneca? What of Nero, after they were gone?

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4. Whom did he send away? What is said of her? Whom did he then marry? Whom did he collect around him?
5. What is said of his vanity? What did he fancy himself? In what did he take delight, and what fancy? Whither did he travel, and for what purpose? How was he treated wherever he went, and why? What must sometimes have been difficult?
6. What noted event is mentioned? What do some think? What is said of him? On whom was the blame cast? What did Nero begin to do? Relate the different ways in which they were put to death. How did Nero amuse himself?
7. Who about this time came to Rome? What do we learn, and from what? What was he allowed? What has been thought likely, and why? What do we learn besides? What is said of the name Cæsar? What does St. Paul again say?
8. When was his first visit made? When the second? Relate what is said of his second visit.
9. What is said of his sentence? What of his death? What of the death of St. Peter?
10. How did Nero rebuild Rome, and for what purpose?
11. On what did he spare no expense? What was it called? How is it described? What did he say when it was finished?
12. Who was accused of conspiring against him? What was he allowed as a favor? What further is said of his death? What is said of his wife? What relative of Seneca's was also killed, and why? What proofs are given of their great strength of mind?
13. After this, who died, and in consequence of what? What broke out, and when? What is said of the soldiers stationed there? How was Nero affected by it? Who was proclaimed at Rome? Whither did Nero flee? What is said of him while there? What was the manner of his death? How long did he reign, and what was his age?
14. What wars happened in the reign of Nero?

CHAPTER LII.—Who is the subject of this chapter?

1. How long did he reign? What is said of his age? Why was he not liked? Who had the greatest influence over him? What is said of their advice?
2. What did Galba imagine? What, accordingly, did he do? What promise did Galba neglect to fulfil? Who tried to form a conspiracy, and amongst whom? What is related of the plot? What of Galba and others?

CHAPTER LIII.—Who is the subject of this chapter?

How long did he reign? What is stated of his disposition? What was now the practice of the soldiers? What is related of the legions in Germany? What was the result of the struggle between Otho and Vitellius?

CHAPTER LIV.—Who is the subject of this chapter?

1. What is remarked of his character? What of his one great pleasure? How long did he reign? Who was then chosen?

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2. For what is the reign of Vespasian remarkable?
3. What was prophesied? What is said of a new subject?
4. Who left Judæa, and for what? Who remained?
5. What is stated of those princes?
6. What defence did the Jews make? What did they lose? What is remarked of the strength of the city? How did the Jews spend their time?

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7. At what time did Titus undertake to besiege the city? How did he begin? As he went on, what did he do? Whom did he send, and for what? How was the city surrounded? What is stated of Josephus, and what of a prophecy in the Bible?
8. By what was the destruction of Jerusalem foretold? What could not the Jews believe—till what? Where did they take refuge? What was done by a Roman soldier? To revenge themselves, what did the soldiers do?
9. What did Titus strive to do? What is remarked of a Higher Power? What sanctuary was profaned, and how?
10. What, even in our days, can we see?
11. Whither did Titus return, and what is still to be seen?
12. Before Titus became emperor, what was there reason to fear? What is observed when he came to the throne?
13. What is said to have occurred one night?
14. Who succeeded Titus? What is remarked of his reign?
15. Recite the whole of this section.
16. Recite this section.
17. Who succeeded Heliogabalus? What is stated of his conversion? When did that event take place? What is stated of the removal of Constantine, and of the division of the empire?
18. What happened in the course of five hundred years after the birth of our Lord?
19. What is observed of the Eastern Empire?

CHAPTER LV.—1. What may it be useful to know? What is said of the account now given?
2. What was a Roman house very unlike, and why? What is said of the position of the house? What of the street-door and hall? What was beyond the hall? What is said of the cistern? For what was the atrium used? What were placed in it? What was considered sacred, and to what was it dedicated? For what did the Romans go to great expense? What are we told of their price?
3. What was there often besides?
4. What is said of the bedrooms? What of their beds? What of counterpanes? What is not known? What is said of the dining-room? What was customary at table for men? What for ladies?
5. What is said of the floors?
6. What of the windows? What were they in early times? What afterwards, and in the time of the emperors? What must the bedrooms have been, and why?
7. How did the Romans heat their houses? How sometimes? What is generally thought? How did the smoke escape?
8. What is said of the tops of the houses?
9. What is said of the principal meal? What of children and invalids? What of the dinners of the Romans? What was first done by those assembled to enjoy this meal, and why? What next did they do? With what was each person provided? Why was that necessary?
10. Before going to dinner what did the Romans always do? What is said of public baths? To conciliate the people, what did the great men do? What further is observed in relation to public baths?
11. What is observed in regard to the Roman dress? What was the toga? When a Roman wished to stand for any office, what did he do? What was it then called? What is derived from that custom? What is said of the toga in mourning, and on occasions of triumph and rejoicing? What is said of the toga worn by boys? When were regular ceremonies used? Who else wore togas? How long did they wear it? What did they then put on? What was that?

What was worn by both men and women? What did they use to protect them from the cold?

12. What is remarked of the use of shoes? What was sometimes done? What were their shoes at other times?
13. With what did the Romans write, and upon what?
14. What is said of the public games?
15. What is stated of the persecution of the Christians?
16. About what do not the Romans appear to have known much? What is said of their gardens? What of the flowers with which they were acquainted? What must have been the most striking part in a Roman garden?

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Pontifices

[illegible] the lives and manners
of the [illegible] Pontifices and regulated
the Kalendar.

Pontifex Maximus

Judged all causes relating to
religion and was the highest of
[illegible]

[illegible] were 15 in number
and had the greatest authority
it was their office to [illegible]
events and [illegible] dreams
[illegible] prodigies and to say and
[illegible]
[illegible]
[illegible]

Haruspices
who derived their omens from
entrails of beasts also from flame
smoke and other circumstances attend
ing sacrifices

Quindecimviri were 15 priests
who had charge of Sybilline books

Septemviri were 7 priests who
declared the sacred rites at the
Lupercal procession and other solemn
occasions

Easter till 145 A.D
Western fall of empire 476 A.D

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